History & Slides

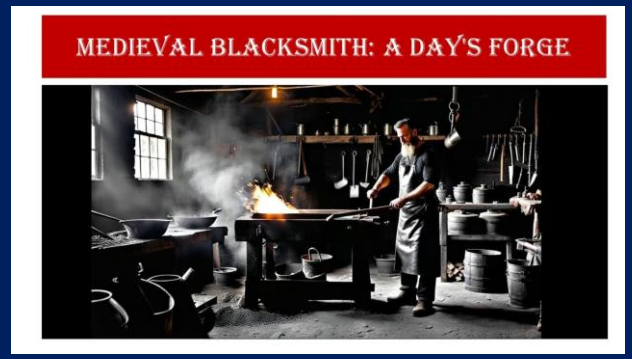
Presidential Assassinations

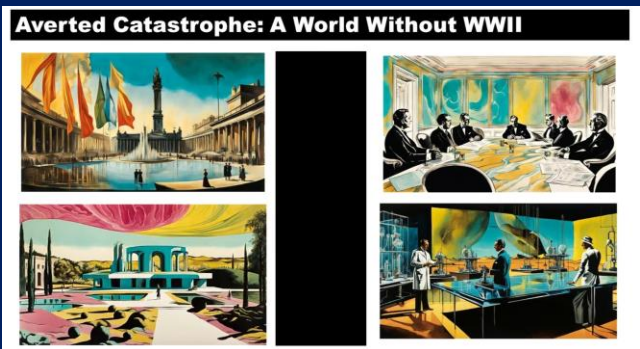
Poison in history

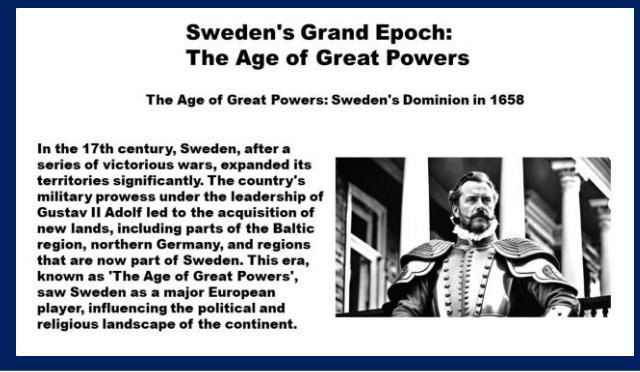
Medieval Blacksmith a day´s Forge

Averted World WWII

The age of Great Power in Sweden






Sweden's Grand Epoch:
The Age of Great Powers
The Age of Great Powers: Sweden's Dominion in 1658
In the 17th century, Sweden, after a series of victorious wars, expanded its territories significantly. The country's military prowess under the leadership of Gustav II Adolf led to the acquisition of new lands, including parts of the Baltic region, northern Germany, and regions that are now part of Sweden. This era, known as 'The Age of Great Powers', saw Sweden as a major European player, influencing the political and religious landscape of the continent.

April 2024 – no. 1
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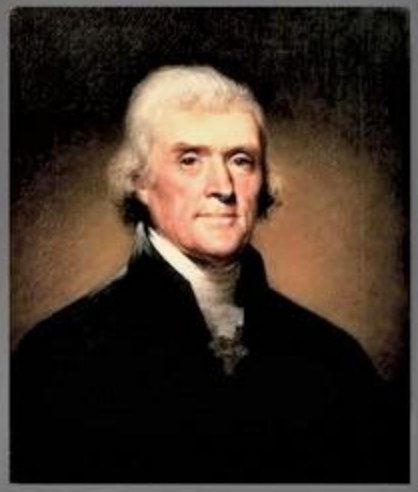
2,50 USD inkl. vat.

Presidential Assassinations

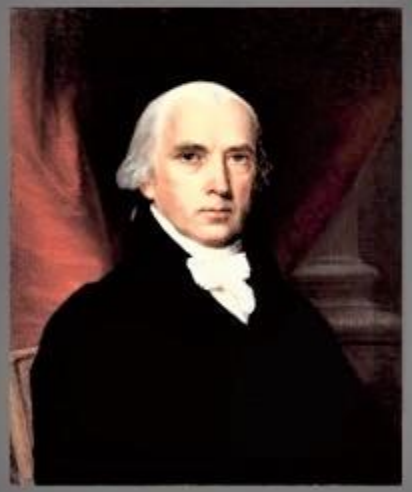
GEORG WASHINGTON
1789 – 1797

JOHN ADAMS
1797 – 1801



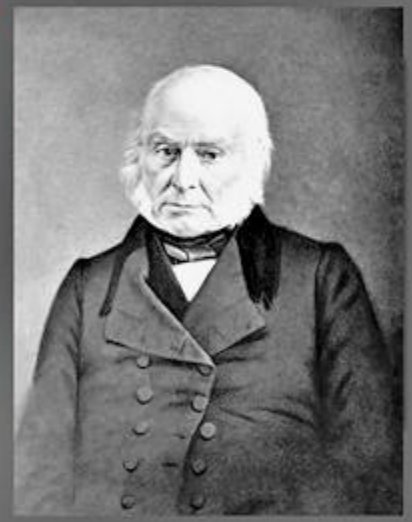
THOMAS JEFFERSSON
1801 -1809

US Presidents



JAMES MADISON
1809 – 1817

JAMES MONROE
1817 – 1825



JOHN Q ADAMS
1825 - 1829

The Tragedy of Presidential Assassinations in the United States

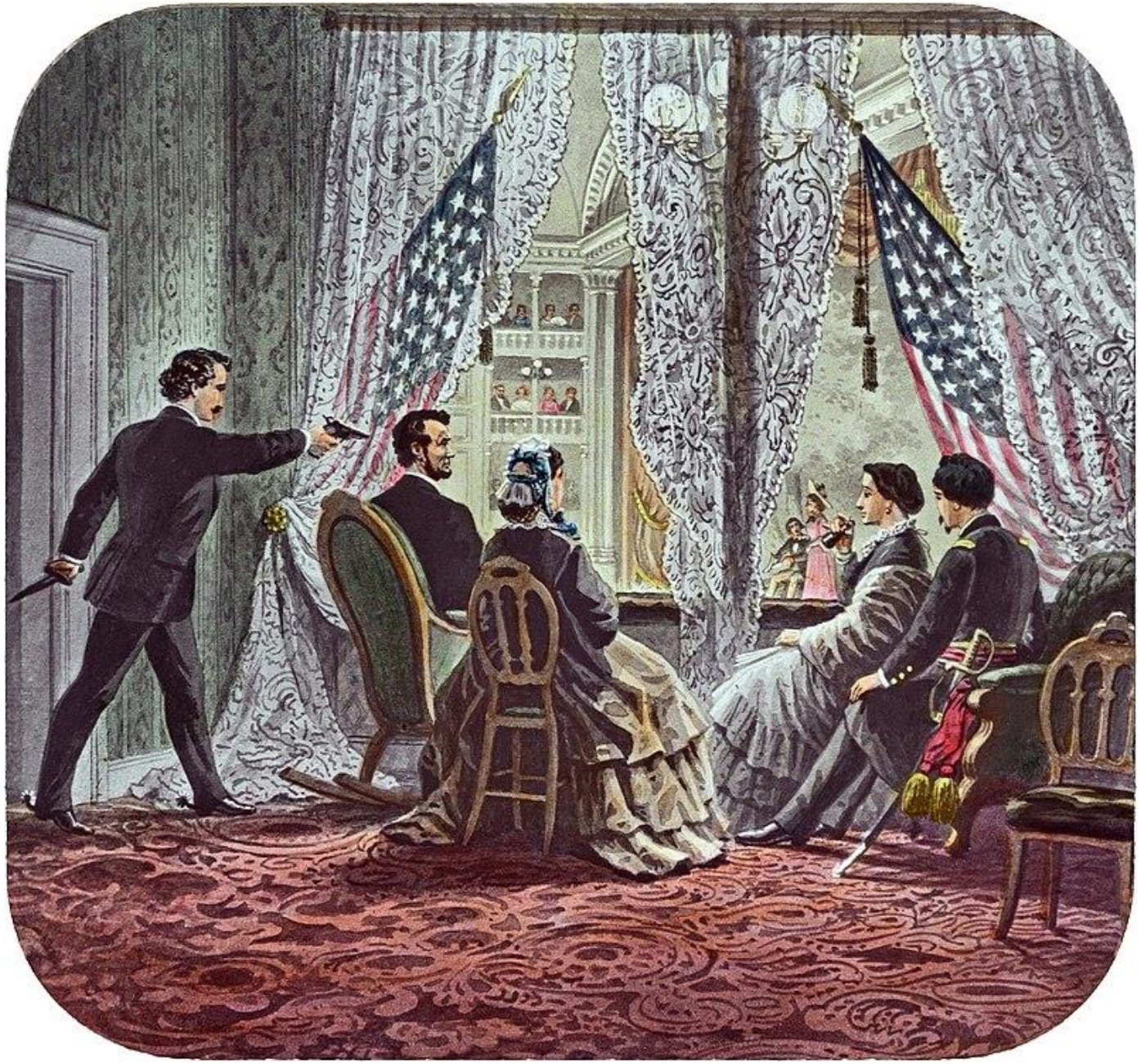
Presidential Assassinations and Comparative Mortality Risks

Overview of Presidential Assassinations

The United States has endured a grim history with four of its presidents falling victim to assassination. These tragic events have claimed the lives of Abraham Lincoln, James A. Garfield, William McKinley, and John F. Kennedy, each marked by acts of violence that shocked the nation. The presidency, an office that symbolizes the highest level of national leadership, has been marred by these unspeakable acts.

Details of Presidential Assassinations

Abraham Lincoln's assassination in 1865 by John Wilkes Booth, James A. Garfield's death in 1881 at the hands of Charles J. Guiteau, William McKinley's shooting in 1901 by Leon Czolgosz, and John F. Kennedy's murder in 1963 by Lee Harvey Oswald are not only etched in the annals of American history but also serve as a stark reminder of the vulnerability of the presidency.



Depiction of John Wilkes Booth (far left) preparing to shoot Abraham Lincoln; Mary Todd Lincoln, Clara Harris, and Henry Rathbone are with the president.

The assassination of Abraham Lincoln took place on Good Friday, April 14, 1865, as the Civil War was drawing to a close. He died the following morning at the age of 56.

Risk of Being President

The office of the President of the United States is one that comes with unprecedented protection due to the historical risk associated with the role. From the early days of the republic, the lack of security measures led to attempts on the life of President Andrew Jackson, setting a precedent for the need for heightened protection for the president and their family.

Comparative Mortality Rates

In contrast, the mortality rate in Sweden due to murder is significantly lower, with an average of one death per 100,000 citizens per year. This statistic underscores the stark difference in the level of danger faced by an individual in Sweden compared to the historical risk of becoming President of the United States.

1
Mortality rate in Sweden per 100,000 citizens per year due to murder

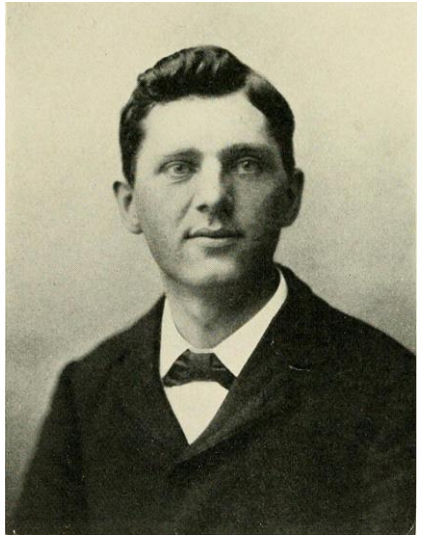
150
Estimated times more dangerous it is to be President of the USA historically compared to the mortality rate in Sweden

James A. Garfield

The assassination of James A. Garfield happened in Washington, D.C., on July 2, 1881. Garfield was shot by Charles J. Guiteau at 9:30 a.m., less than four months into his term as the nation's 20th president. He died 11 weeks later on September 19, 1881, at the age of 49. Vice President Chester A. Arthur succeeded him as president. Garfield was scheduled to leave Washington on July 2, 1881, for his summer vacation.[39] On that day, Guiteau lay in wait for the president at the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad station, on the southwest corner of present-day Sixth Street and Constitution Avenue NW, Washington, D.C.

William McKinley

William McKinley was assassinated on September 6, 1901, inside the Temple of Music on the grounds of the Pan-American Exposition in Buffalo, New York. McKinley was shaking hands with the public when Leon Czolgosz, a Polish-American anarchist, shot him. The 58-year-old president died eight days later on September 14 from gangrene caused by the bullet wounds



Leon Czolgosz

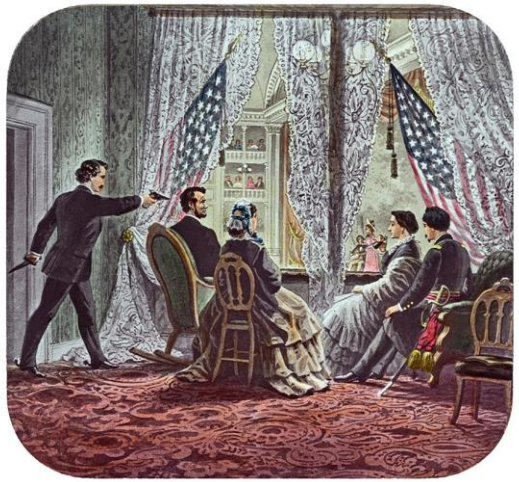
A drawing depicting Leon Czolgosz shooting William McKinley with a concealed revolver

John F. Kennedy

President Kennedy and Jackie Kennedy (seated rear) with Governor Connally and Nellie Connally (seated forward) in the presidential limousine minutes before the assassination

The most recent U.S. president to die in office is John F. Kennedy, who was assassinated on November 22, 1963, in Dallas, Texas. He was fatally shot by Lee Harvey Oswald, who fired three shots from a sixth floor window of the Texas School Book Depository at 12:30 p.m. as the presidential motorcade passed through Dealey Plaza. Riding in the vehicle with the president were First Lady Jackie Kennedy, Texas governor John Connally, and Connally's wife Nellie; Governor Connally was also seriously wounded in the attack. The motorcade rushed to Parkland Memorial Hospital, where Kennedy was pronounced dead about 30 minutes later, at the age of 46. Connally recovered from his injuries

When comparing the risk of becoming President of the United States to the mortality rate in Sweden, it is estimated to be 150 times more dangerous historically. This stark contrast highlights the unique and perilous nature of the American presidency. Killed in Sweden (116 year 2023) Population 10,6 million.



Abraham Lincoln

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POISON
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POISON

POISON
FSB
POISON
Putin & Blend
POISON
Agent Killer

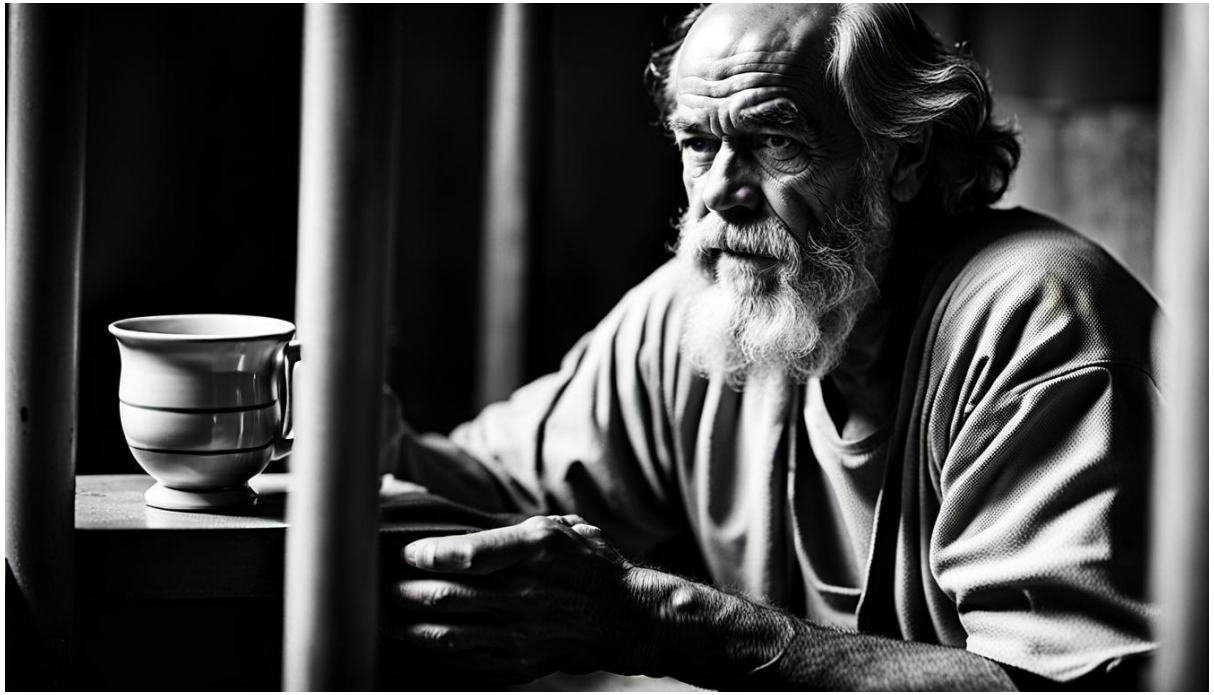
Deadly Elixirs: A History of Poison Murders

The Dark Art of Poison in History

The Deadly Practice of Poisoning in Ancient Times

Poisoning, a method of assassination that predates recorded history, was a common practice in ancient societies. The use of poison for nefarious purposes was particularly prevalent during the Roman Empire, where it was not unheard of for individuals to be poisoned through food or drink. The practice was so pervasive that immunity to certain toxins, such as the one believed to have been developed by King Mithridates VI, became a matter of survival for the elite.

One of the most infamous cases of poisoning in history is that of Socrates, who was sentenced to death by the Athenian government for 'corrupting the youth' and 'refusing to acknowledge the city-state's gods.' While the method of his execution is not confirmed, it is often speculated that he was given hemlock, a highly potent poison, to drink.



The Death of Socrates (French: La Mort de Socrate) is an oil on canvas painted by French painter Jacques-Louis David in 1787.

Born c. 470 BC
Deme Alopece, Athens

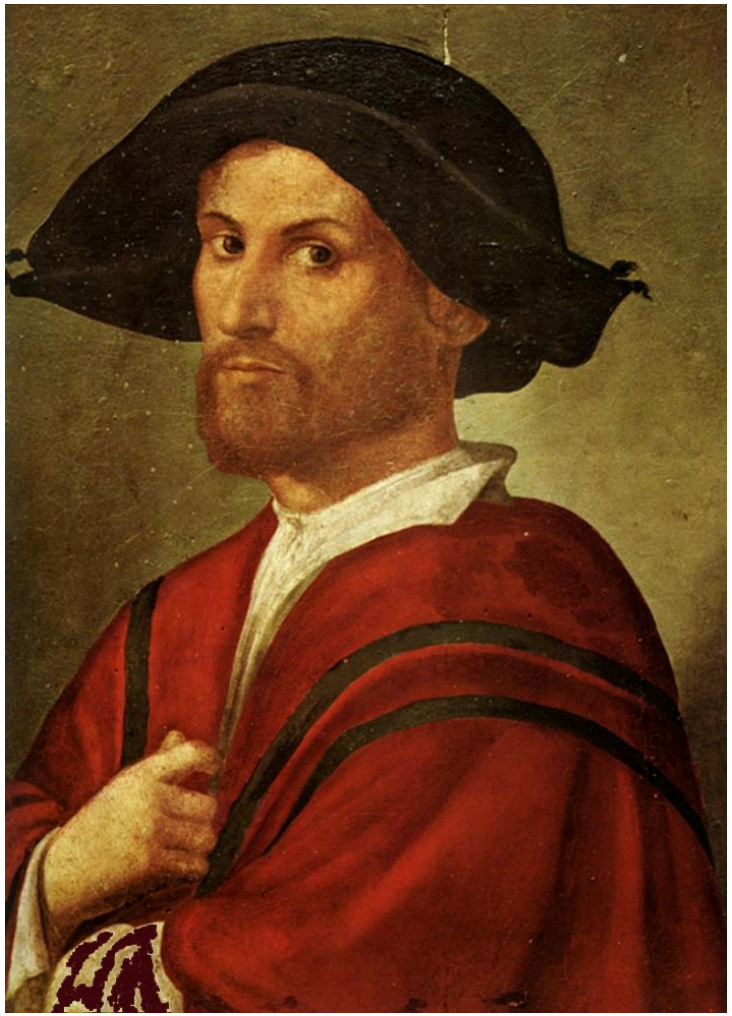
Died 399 BC
(aged approximately 71)
Athens

The Debate of Socrates and Aspasia by Nicolas-André Monsiau.

Renaissance Poisoners and the Borgia Family

In the Renaissance period, the Borgia family, particularly Lucrezia Borgia, was rumored to be involved in a series of poisonings. Lucrezia, often depicted as a seductive and deadly figure, was said to possess a ring with a hidden compartment for arsenic.

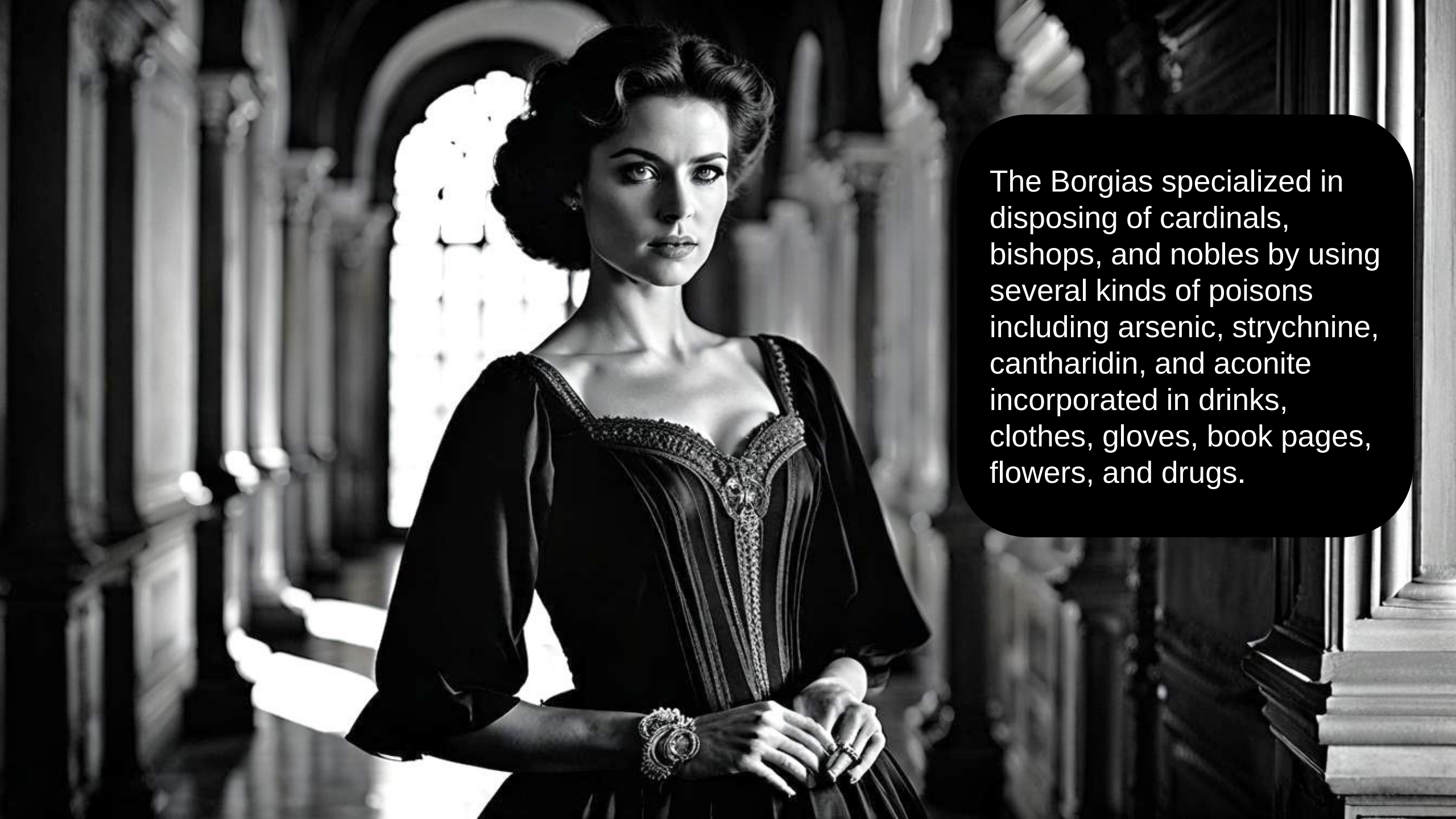
However, modern historians believe she may have been unfairly vilified, and her reputation for poisoning may be more myth than fact.



Giovanni Borgia, 2nd Duke of Gandía

Portrait of a Gentleman (Cesare Borgia)

Gioffre Borgia (1482–1517)



The Borgias specialized in disposing of cardinals, bishops, and nobles by using several kinds of poisons including arsenic, strychnine, cantharidin, and aconite incorporated in drinks, clothes, gloves, book pages, flowers, and drugs.

Cantarella was a poison allegedly used by the Borgias during the papacy of Pope Alexander VI. It may have been arsenic, came in the shape of "a white powder with a pleasant taste", and was sprinkled on food or in wine. If it did exist, it left no trace in the works of contemporary writers.

Saturday, 12 August 1503, the pope fell ill in the morning. After the hour of vespers, between six and seven o'clock a fever appeared and remained permanently. On 15 August thirteen ounces of blood were drawn from him and the tertian ague supervened. On Thursday, 17 August, at nine o'clock in the forenoon he took medicine. On Friday, the 18th, between nine and ten o'clock he confessed to the Bishop Gamboa of Carignola, who then read Mass to him. After his Communion he gave the Eucharist to the pope who was sitting in bed. Then he ended the Mass at which were present five cardinals, Serra, Juan and Francesco Borgia, Casanova and Loris. The pope told them that he felt very bad. At the hour of vespers after Gamboa had given him Extreme Unction, he died.

King Eric XIV of Sweden

Eric XIV (Swedish: Erik XIV; 13 December 1533 – 26 February 1577) was King of Sweden from 1560 until he was captured in a rebellion led by his brother John in 1568 and formally deposed 26 January 1569. Eric XIV was the eldest son of Gustav I (1496–1560) and Catherine of Saxe-Lauenburg (1513–1535). He was also ruler of Estonia, after it placed itself under Swedish protection in 1561.

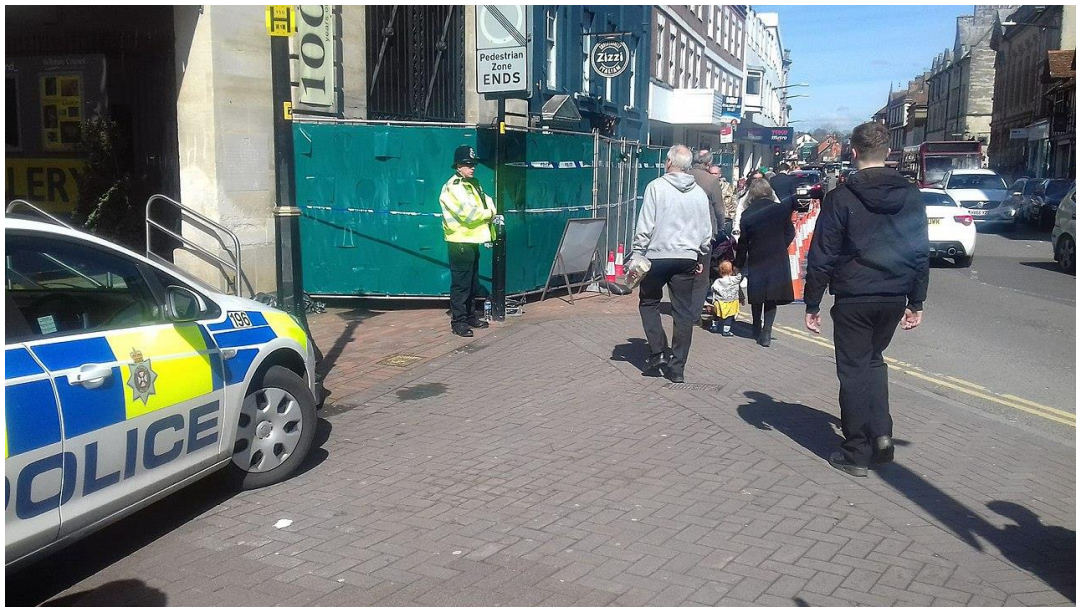
Eric was held as a prisoner in many different castles in both Sweden and Finland. He died in prison in Örbyhus Castle. According to a tradition starting with Johannes Messenius, his final meal was a poisoned bowl of pea soup. A document signed by his brother, John III of Sweden, and a nobleman, Bengt Bengtsson Gylta (1514–74), gave Eric's guards in his last prison authorization to poison him if anyone tried to release him. His body was later exhumed and modern forensic analysis revealed evidence of lethal arsenic poisoning.

The Use of Poison in Modern Times

While the use of poison as a weapon has declined, it has not entirely disappeared. In recent history, there have been cases where individuals have been poisoned with nerve agents such as VX, highlighting the continued interest in and accessibility of toxic substances.

Hi gave the order Kill him

Alexander Litvinenko was an officer of the Russian Federal Security Service (FSB) and its predecessor, the KGB, until he left the service and fled the country. On 1 November 2006, Litvinenko was poisoned and later hospitalized. He died on 23 November, becoming the first confirmed victim of lethal polonium-210-induced acute radiation syndrome. Litvinenko's allegations about misdeeds of the FSB and his public deathbed accusations that Putin was behind his poisoning resulted in worldwide media coverage.



Poisoning of Sergei and Yulia Skripal

The poisoning of Sergei and Yulia Skripal, also known as the Salisbury Poisonings, was a botched assassination attempt to poison Sergei Skripal, a former Russian military officer and double agent for the British intelligence agencies in the city of Salisbury, England on 4 March 2018. Sergei and his daughter, Yulia Skripal, were poisoned by means of a Novichok nerve agent. Both spent several weeks in hospital in a critical condition, before being discharged. A police officer, Nick Bailey, was also taken into intensive care after attending the incident, and was later discharge.
The British government accused Russia of attempted murder and announced a series of punitive measures against Russia, including the expulsion of diplomats. On 30 June 2018, a similar poisoning of two British nationals in Amesbury, seven miles (11 km) north of Salisbury, involved the same nerve agent.

The failed poisoning of the Skripals would become an embarrassment for Putin, and ended up causing severe damage to Russia's spying organisations. Once Bellingcat exposed the agents' names in September, Moscow then targeted interior ministry leaks that may have helped expose dozens of undercover operatives. It also prompted fury in the Kremlin, the result of which was a purge in the senior ranks of the GRU. Furthermore a number of botched attempts by the GRU were also revealed in October – the Sandworm cybercrime unit had attempted unsuccessfully to hack the UK Foreign Office and the Porton Down facility within a month of the poisonings. Another hack was attempted in April this time on the headquarters of the Organisation for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) in the Netherlands. The OPCW was investigating the poisonings in the UK, as well the Douma chemical attack in Syria. Four Russian intelligence officers, believed to have been part of a 'GRU cleanup' unit for the earlier failed operations, travelled to The Hague on diplomatic passports.

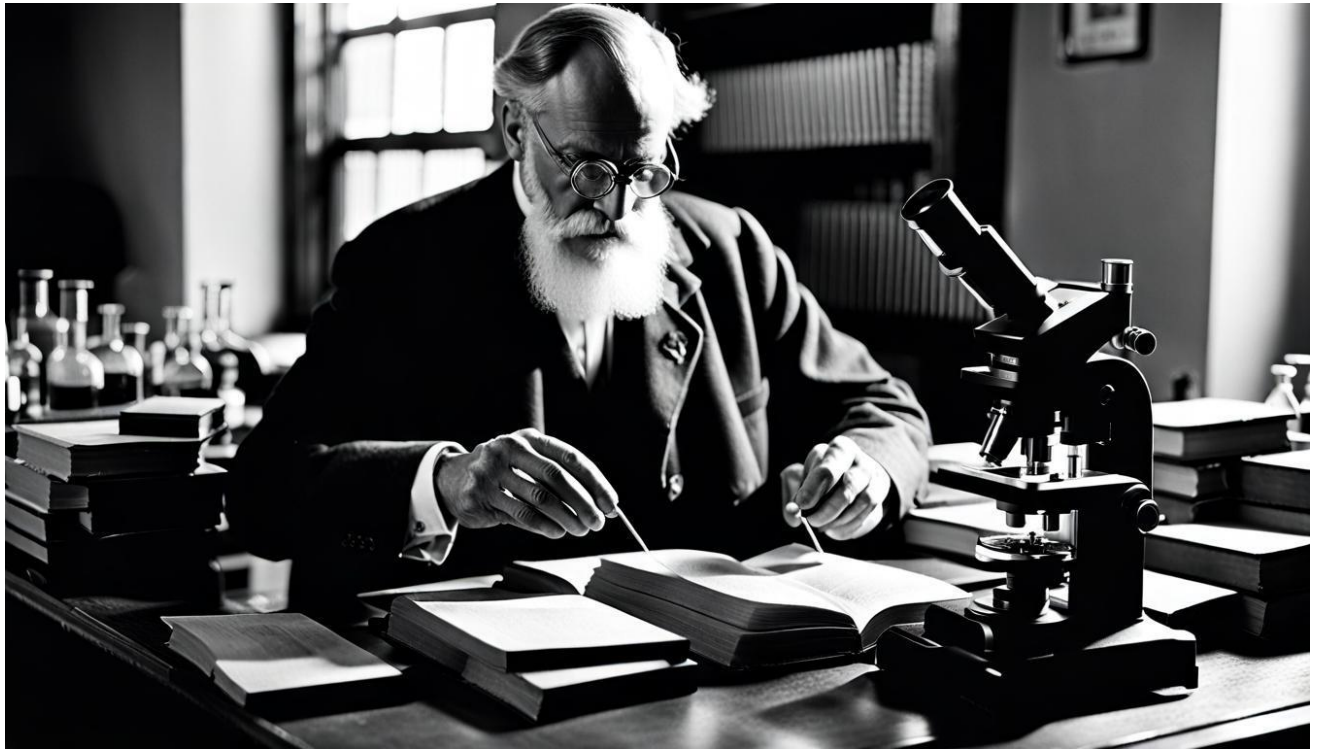
For the UK, the response to the poisonings was viewed as a success story. Initially there were criticisms of the intelligence failures with the supposed GRU agents gaining access to the UK in the first place. However after the Litvinenko poisoning there were calls for more robust action against Russia, should an event like it unfold. The Salisbury poisonings put that robustness into action, managing to rally behind it huge solidarity from the West. In addition, the response also exposed many Russian intelligence officers, and British officials believe they did real damage to Russian intelligence operations, even if it was short term.

The Impact of Poison on Society and Science

In 2004, Viktor Yushchenko, who ran against Kremlin favourite Viktor Yanukovych in Ukraine's presidential election, was left permanently disfigured when he was poisoned with dioxin.

Yushchenko at the University of Amsterdam, with chloracne from TCDD poisoning (2006).

Throughout history, poison has not only been a tool of assassination but also a catalyst for scientific discovery. The study of poison has led to advancements in toxicology and technology, as scientists seek to understand and counteract the effects of these deadly substances.



Moscow's penchant for poisoning its enemies dates back at least a century, to when Vladimir Ilyich Lenin was first establishing the Soviet Union.

It was Lenin who ordered the creation of a secret service poisons factory, known variously as the Special Room, Scientific Research Institute No 2, Lab X and later the Kamera (Chamber).

By the 1940s, its scientists were testing out deadly poisons on prisoners from the gulags, experimenting to find a tasteless and odourless lethal chemical that could not be detected after death.

Numerous former Russian intelligence officers have detailed how first the secret police, and later the KGB and FSB (Federal Security Bureau), used poison to eliminate opposition figures and foreign spies.

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

A DAY IN THE LIFE OF A MEDIEVAL BLACKSMITH

Dawn: The Blacksmith's Day Begins

As dawn breaks, the blacksmith's forge comes to life with the crackling of flames and the ringing of hammer on anvil. The blacksmith, a burly man with a thick beard and leather apron, begins his day by stoking the fire, preparing to transform raw iron into works of art and tools of necessity.

Morning: Shaping the Iron

The morning is dedicated to shaping iron. The blacksmith, with his beard now flecked with sparks, uses his hammer and tongs to mold hot metal into horseshoes, nails, and other essential items. His hands are calloused, a testament to his craft, and his eyes are focused, bringing form to the fiery metal.

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

Afternoon: The Anvil's Echo

The afternoon is a symphony of strikes and sparks as the blacksmith hammers away, creating intricate designs on sword blades and armor. The anvil's echo is a rhythmic backdrop to the workshop, a testament to the blacksmith's skill and the anvil's enduring strength.

Evening: The Final Touches

As evening approaches, the blacksmith adds the final touches to his creations, polishing edges and smoothing surfaces. The light from the forge casts a warm glow on his face, showing satisfaction with the day's work and the promise of tomorrow's endeavors.

MEDIEVAL BLACKSMITH: A DAY'S FORGE

Night: The Hearth's Embrace

Night descends, and the blacksmith's day concludes with the embers of the forge dying out. He blows on the coals, extinguishing the fire, and locks the door of his shop, carrying with him the pride of his craft and the promise of a new day's endeavors.

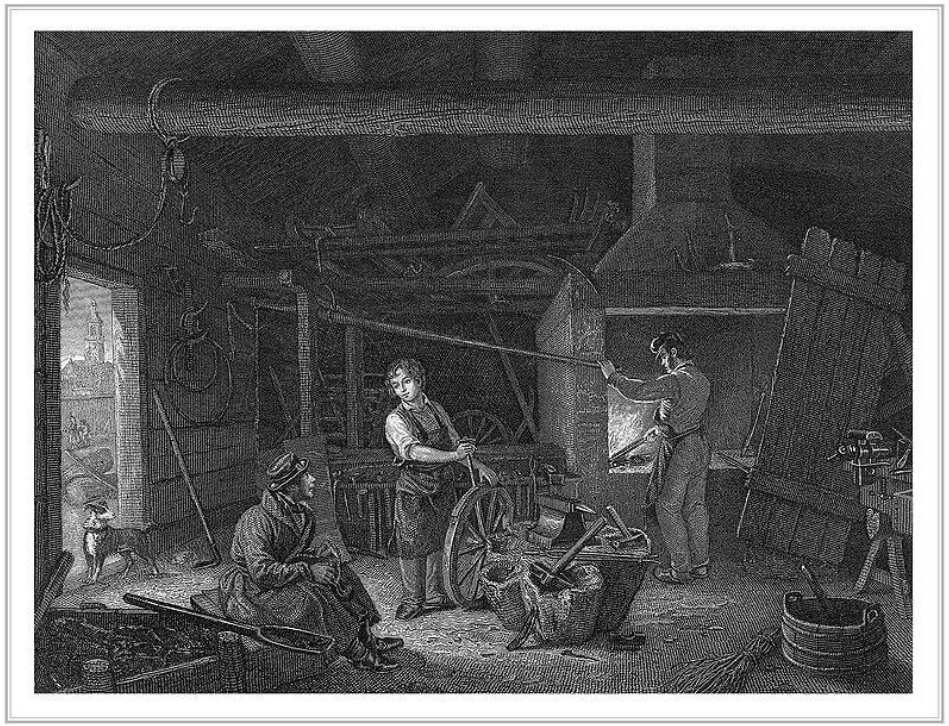
Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

Interiör från smedja av Francicso Goya,

credit: Wikipedia

Medieval blacksmith: a day's forge



R.W. Ekman

En smedja i närheten af Åbo

Vid varmsmide är ässjan smedens viktigaste verktyg. För smide är generellt städet och hammaren de viktigaste verktygen. Utöver detta finns tänger, huggmejslar, olika ämbar för vatten, handskar, läderförkläde med mera. Ässjan och städet bör placeras mörkt. Det är då lättare att avgöra järnets glödfärg.

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

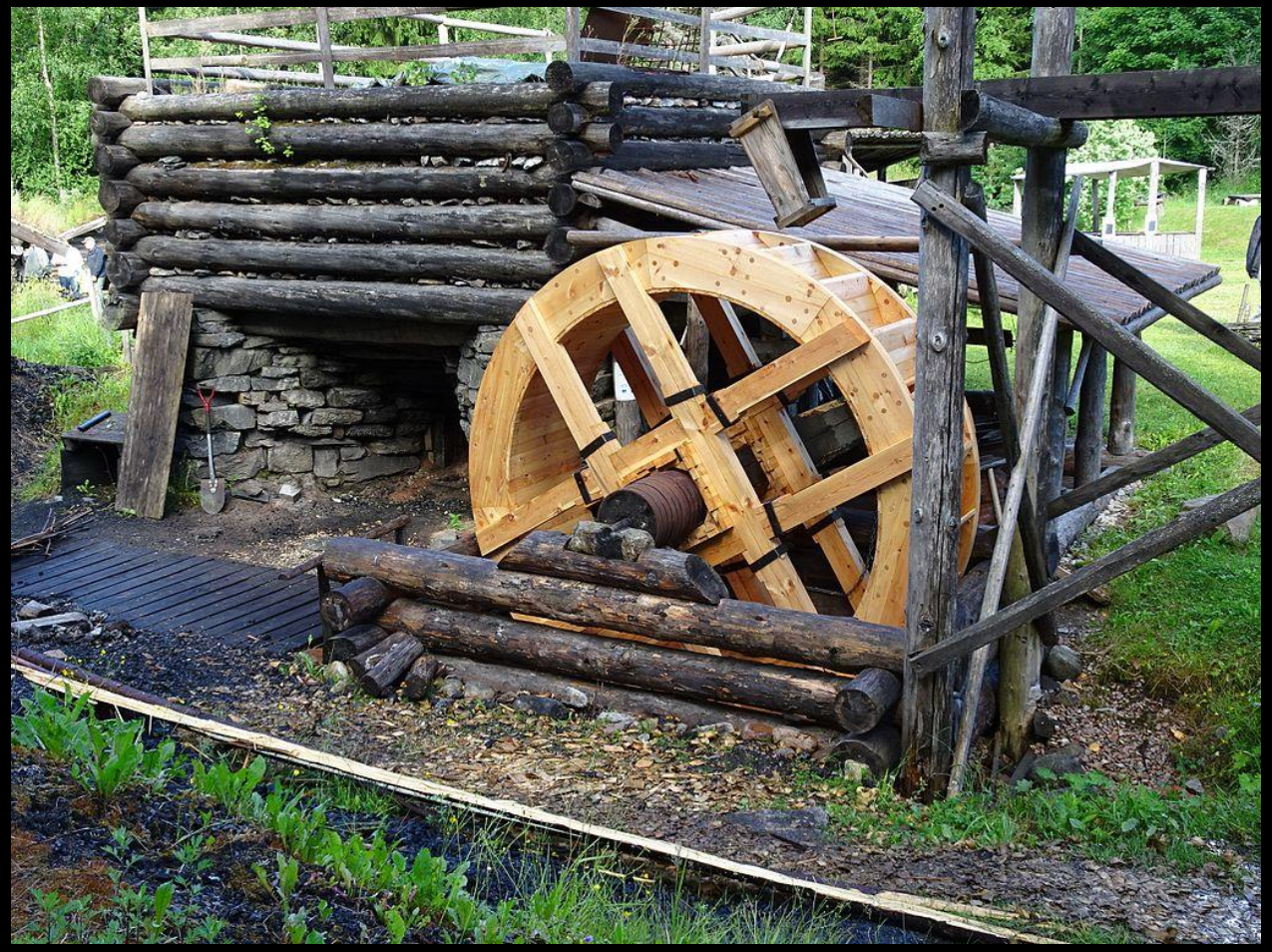
Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

Det är mycket viktigt att få bra värme i ässjan. Men det är inte bara hettan som påverkar kvaliteten på smidet. Bränslet som används kan påverka järnets kvalitet. Varmt järn tar lätt upp svavel, och detta försämrar järnets smidbarhet. Svavelmängden från bränslet kan minskas genom att man låter elden brinna ett tag innan järnet sätts in. Svavel förbränns vid högre temperaturer, varför ässjan bör ha en hög temperatur.

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge

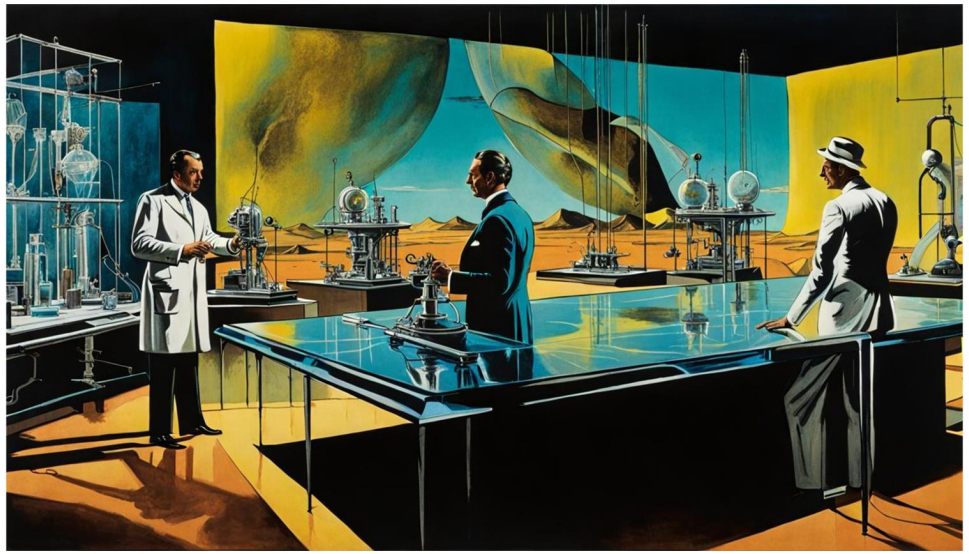
För att få ordentlig hetta i ässjan blåser man luft in i elden. Därtill används en bälg eller ett fläktsystem. En annan metod är att lägga salpeter i elden. Salpetern kommer att avge extra syre och öka förbränningen.

Medieval Blacksmith: A Day's Forge



Hyttan vid Norns Bruk

Averted Catastrophe: A World Without WWII



1936: France's March into Berlin and Hitler's Imprisonment

"By 1936, the victorious countries of the First World War had had enough of Adolf Hitler's constant violations of the peace of 1919 after the First World War. France and Great Britain marched into Germany and disarmed the German army. They also destroyed 500 military aircraft. Adolf Hitler was imprisoned and a new provisional government was formed in Germany. NSAPD The party was disbanded and was banned under German law. Show with several illustrations how French soldiers march into Berlin in 1936, and when Adolf Hitler is imprisoned.“ Alternative history” as a fantasy. This is just a fantasy history not real history.

Averted Catastrophe: A World Without WWII

The Intervention of 1936

In a bold move to curb the aggressive expansionism of Nazi Germany, France and Great Britain took the drastic step of intervening in Germany's internal affairs. This action came after years of growing concern over Hitler's constant violations of the peace treaties following World War I. The intervention was a direct response to Germany's rearmament and the remilitarization of the Rhineland, which were clear threats to the stability of Europe.

The March into Berlin

The World That Was: A Fantasy of Peace

In a realm where the shadows of war never fell, Europe thrived in an era of unprecedented peace and cooperation. The nations that had once clashed in the Great War now stood united, their differences resolved through diplomacy and mutual respect. The continent was a tapestry of diverse cultures, each contributing to a vibrant mosaic of art, science, and commerce.

The Disarmament and Destruction

Upon their arrival, French and British forces initiated a disarmament of the German military, seizing control of strategic locations and military bases. The German air force, the Luftwaffe, suffered significant losses as the Allies destroyed a substantial portion of their aircraft to prevent their use in future aggression.

The Imprisonment of Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler, the architect of Germany's aggressive policies, was identified as a key figure in the Nazi regime's militaristic ambitions. His arrest was a pivotal moment in the intervention, aiming to remove the driving force behind Germany's belligerent stance.

The Rise of a United Front

As the 1930s dawned, the European powers recognized the value of collective security. They forged alliances that went beyond mere treaties, creating a web of interconnected destinies. This unity was not based on fear, but on a shared vision of a peaceful and prosperous future.

The Establishment of a Provisional Government

Following Hitler's imprisonment, a new provisional government was established in Germany. This government was tasked with the responsibility of governing the country without the influence of the Nazi Party, which was disbanded and banned under German law.

The Ban on the NSAPD

The Nazi Party, having been the catalyst for Germany's aggressive policies, was dismantled. The party's infrastructure, including the Stormtroopers (SA), was disbanded, and their activities were outlawed, marking a significant shift in Germany's political landscape.

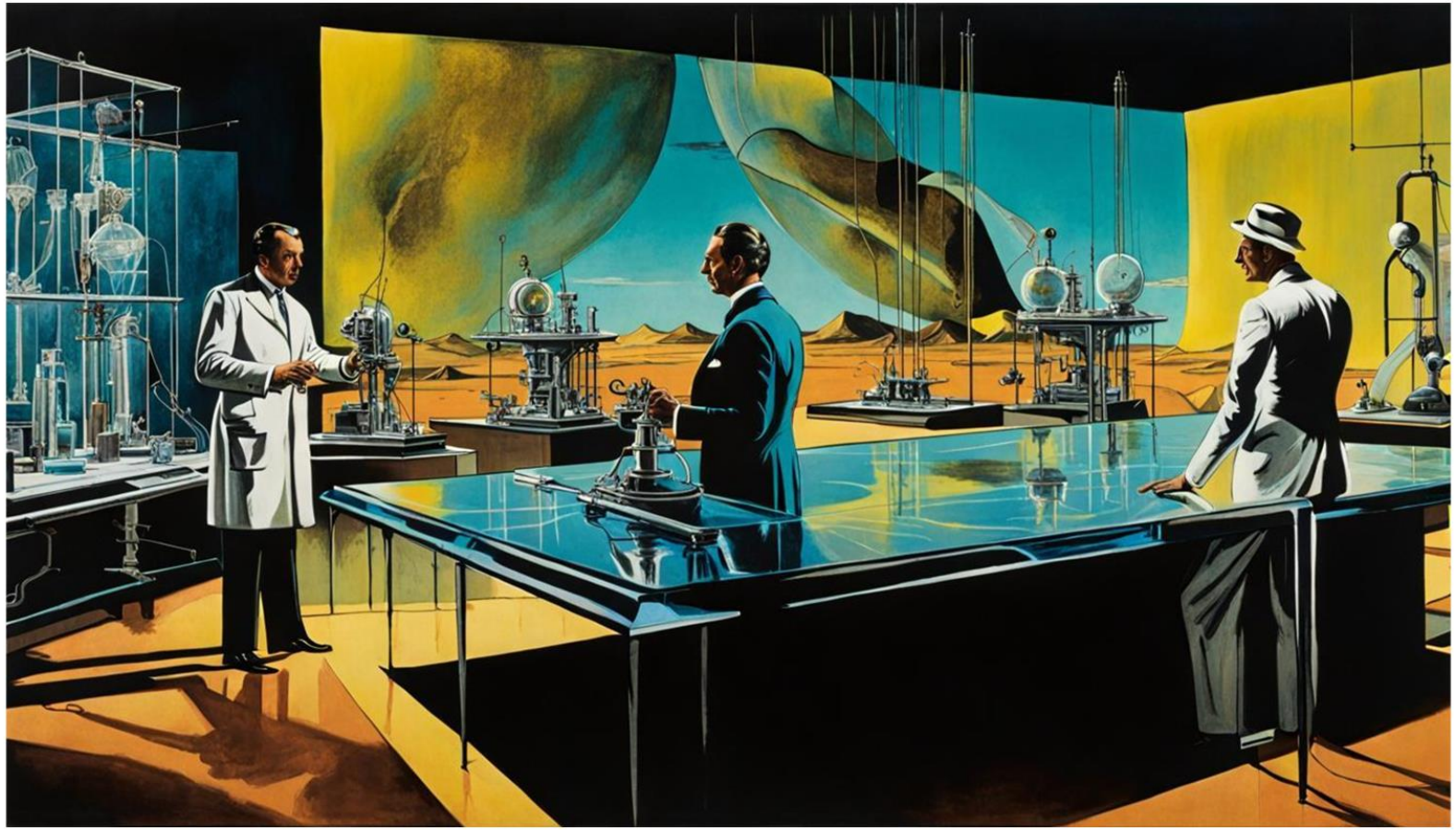
RESSTRCTED
ACCESS

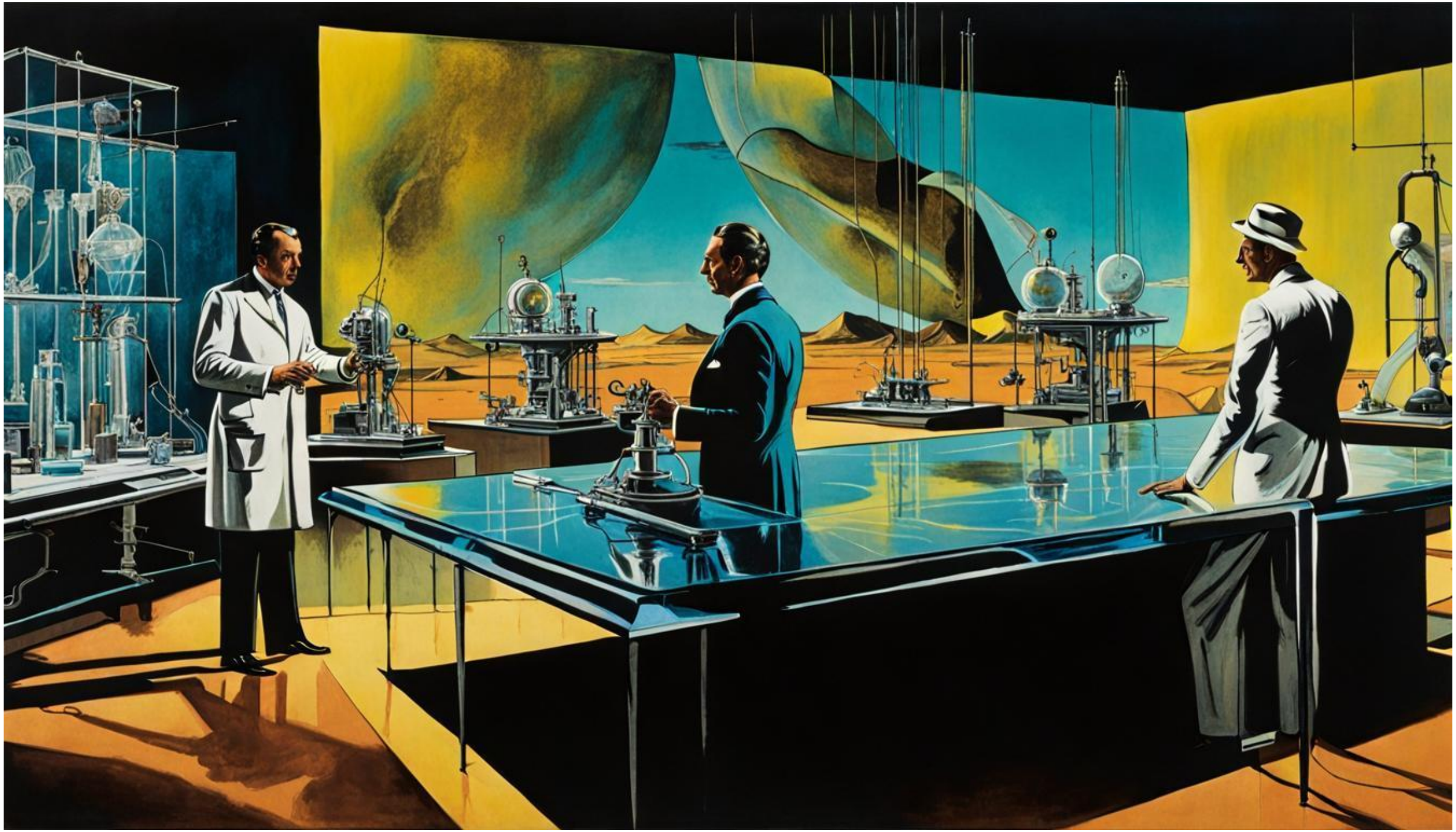
Avoiding the Spark of Conflict

The leaders of Europe learned from the past, investing in disarmament and international oversight. They dismantled the military-industrial complexes that had once fueled war, redirecting resources towards education, healthcare, and the arts.

The Golden Age of Innovation

In this world of peace, innovation flourished without the shadow of war looming over it. Scientists and inventors collaborated across borders, creating technologies that improved lives and opened new frontiers in space and under the sea.





The Legacy of Unity

As the decades passed, the legacy of peace became the defining narrative of human history. The Second World War, once a dark chapter, was relegated to the annals of 'what could have been', overshadowed by the enduring story of unity and progress.

Real History

The Confederation of the Rhine, a union of client states of the First French Empire (1806 to 1813)

DER RHEINBUND 1812

AB	= Anhalt-Bernburg
AD	= Anhalt-Dessau
AK	= Anhalt-Köthen
FI	= Fürstentum Isenburg
FL	= Fürstentum Liechtenstein
FW	= zu Fürstentum Waldeck
GK	= Grafschaft Katzenelnbogen
H	= Hohengeroldseck (Fsm. v.d. Leyen)
HZH	= Hohenzollern-Hechingen
HZS	= Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen
KW	= zu Königreich Westphalen
LD	= Lippe-Detmold
MST	= zu Mecklenburg-Strelitz
OLD	= zu Oldenburg
SC	= Sachsen-Coburg
SG	= Sachsen-Gotha
SH	= Sachsen-Hildburghausen
SL	= Schaumburg-Lippe
SM	= Sachsen-Meiningen
SR	= Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt
SW	= Sachsen-Weimar

Grenze des Rheinbundes

Napoleonische „Modellstaaten"

0 50 100 150 200 Kilometer

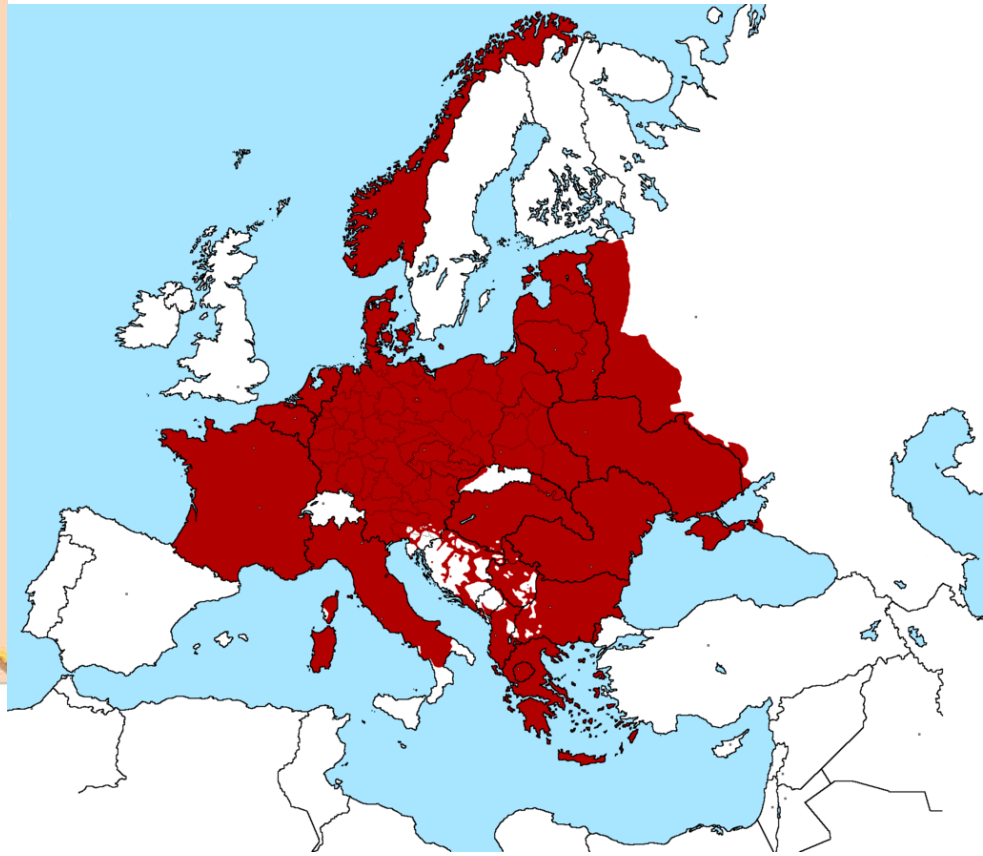
FHZ = Fürstentum Hohenzollern (zu Preußen)
GH = Großherzogtum Hessen
LD = Fürstentum Lippe
OLD = zu Großherzogtum Oldenburg
RÄL = Fürstentum Reuß ältere Linie
RJL = Fürstentum Reuß jüngere Linie
SA = Herzogtum Sachsen-Altenburg
SCG = Herzogtum Sachsen-Coburg und Gotha
SL = Fürstentum Schaumburg-Lippe
SMG = Herzogtum Sachsen-Meiningen
SR = Fürstentum Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt
SWE = Großherzogtum Sachsen-Weimar-Eisenach
W = Fürstentum Waldeck und Pyrmont (Landesteil Pyrmont)

Imperial Germany 1871–1918

On 18 January 1871, the German Empire was proclaimed in the Hall of Mirrors of the Palace of Versailles. Bismarck in the center in white.

Painting depicting the Armistice with Germany in Compiègne, 1918

Germany 1919–1938



1943

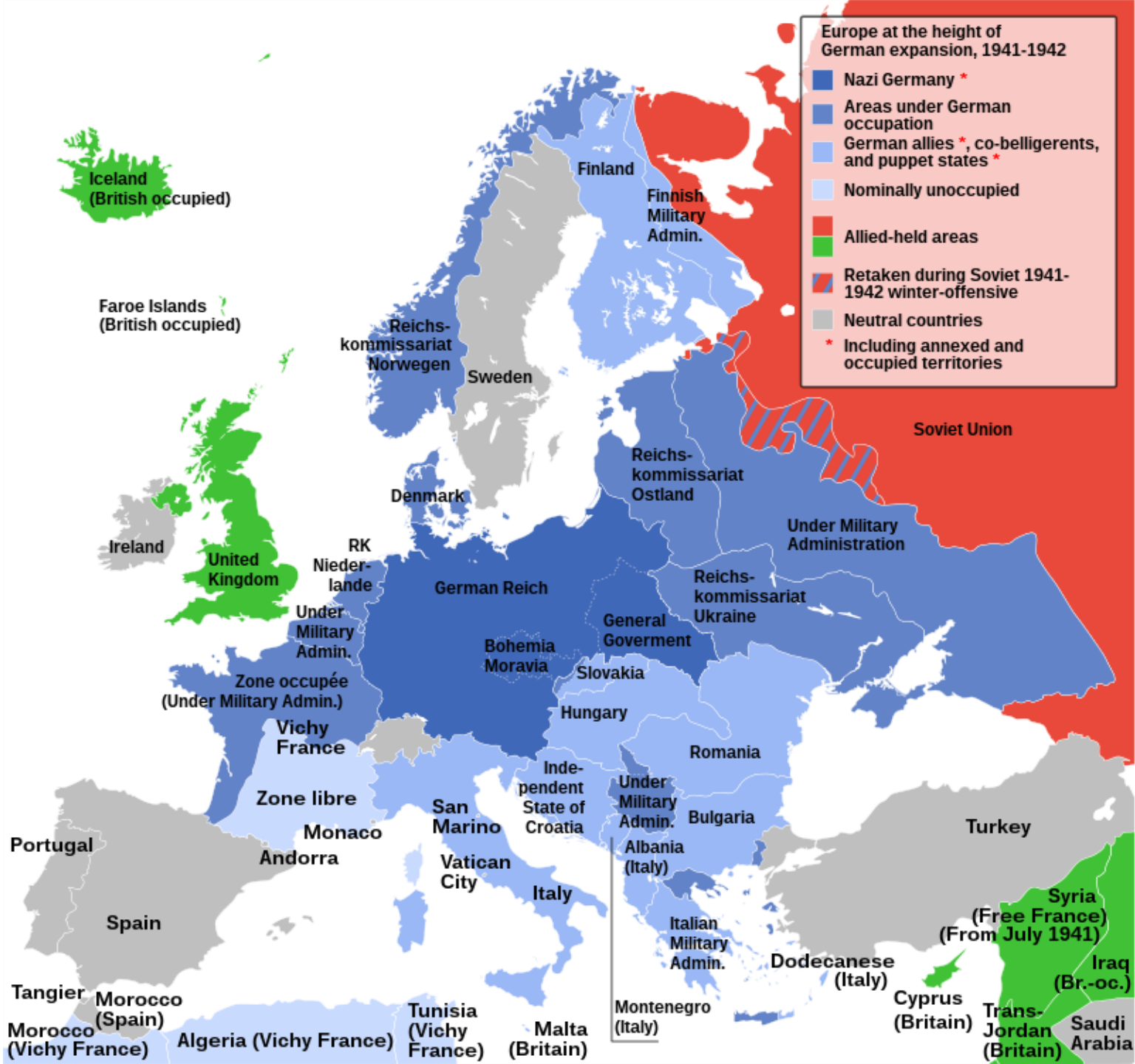
DAS DEUTSCHE REICH
„Weimarer Republik"/
„Drittes Reich" 1919–1937

NORDSEE
OSTSEE
DÄNE-MARK
SCHWEDEN
KOPENHAGEN
Malmö
Flensburg
Kiel
Rostock
Stralsund
Memelgebiet
(1920–1923 alliierte Verw.
1923 v. Litauen annekt.
1924 „Autonomiestatut")
LITAUEN
Memel
Tilsit
Königsberg
Danzig
Gdingen
Elbing
Ostpreußen
FREIE STADT DANZIG
(ab 1920 unter Völkerbundmandat)
Marienwerder
Allenstein
Graudenz
Thorn
Kolberg
Stettin
Pommern
Posen-Westpreußen
Schleswig-Holstein
Old.
M.-St.
Mecklenburg-Schwerin
M.-Strelitz
Wilhelms-haven
Bremer-haven
Hansestadt Hamburg
OLDENBURG
Hansestadt Bremen
Olden-burg
Provinz Hannover
Prv. Sachsen
Branden-burg
Küstrin
Frankfurt
Grenzmark
Posen
1918/20 poln.
Warthe
Weichsel
WARSCHAU
POLEN
NIEDERLANDE
Osnabrück
Hannover
S-L
BRAUNSCHWEIG
Magdeburg
Potsdam
BERLIN
Münster
DETMOLD
L-D
W
Braunschweig
DESSAU
Anhalt
Cottbus
Provinz Westfalen
Göttingen
Düsseldorf
Waldeck
Kassel
Sondersh.
Halle
Leipzig
Sachsen
DRESDEN
Niederschlesien
Breslau
Provinz Hessen-Nassau
Marburg
Erfurt
WEIMAR
Jena
Gera
Thüringen
Chemnitz
Oppeln
Oberschl.
Beuthen
Königshütte
Gleiwitz
Kattowitz
Krakau
BELGIEN
Eupen
Malmedy
Rheinprovinz
Köln
Koblenz
Bonn
Wetzlar
Gießen
Wiesbaden
Mainz
Frankfurt
Coburg
PRAG
Elbe
Hultschin
LUXEM-BURG
Trier
Luxemburg
Hess.
DARM-STADT
Aschaffenbg.
Würzburg
Main
TSCHECHOSLOWAKEI
Saargebiet 1920–35
zu Bayern
Metz
KARLSRUHE
Nürnberg
Bayern
Regensburg
Verdun
Nancy
(1918/20 franz.)
Baden
Württemberg
STUTTGART
Ulm
Augsburg
Donau
Brünn
FRANKREICH
Straßburg
Colmar
Freiburg
MÜNCHEN
Linz
WIEN
Preßburg
Salzburg
ÖSTERREICH
Zürich
LIECHTEN-STEIN
Bern
Innsbruck
Inn
Mur
Graz
UNGARN
SCHWEIZ
Genf
Rhone
Bozen
Etsch
Klagenfurt
Maribor
ITALIEN
SHS-STAAT
AB 1929 JUGOSLAWIEN

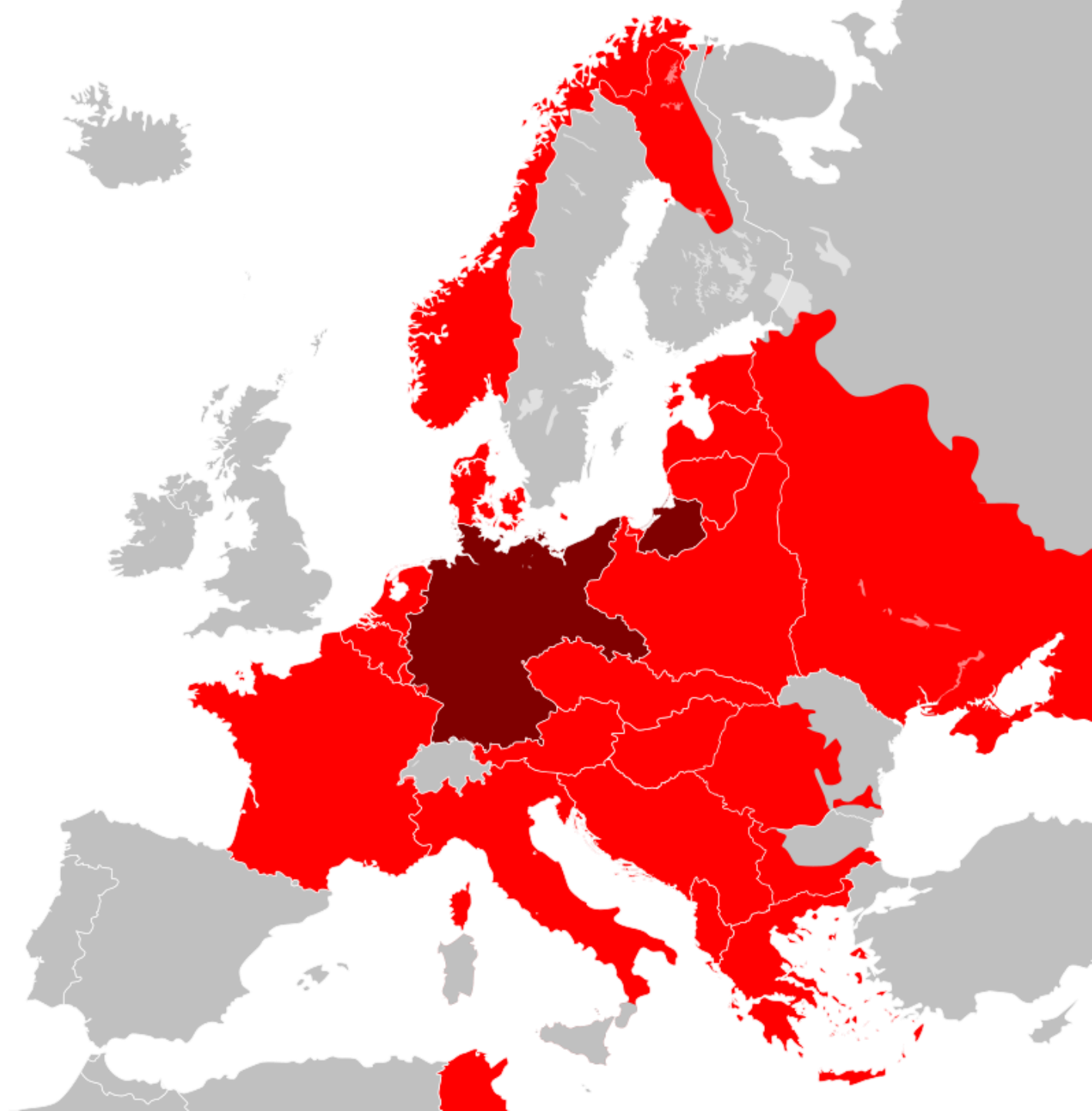
HL = Hansestadt Lübeck (1937 preußisch)
L-D = Lippe-Detmold
SL = Schaumburg-Lippe
M-St. = Mecklenburg-Strelitz
W = Waldeck und Pyrmont
(Landesteil Pyrmont/1921 preußisch)
= Grenze des Deutschen Reiches 1921
= Grenze des Deutschen Reiches 1914
= Abstimmungsgebiete
(Prozentzahlen = deutscher Stimmenanteil)
Laut Vertrag von Versailles besetzte Gebiete
= 1. Zone (bes. bis 1926)
= 2. Zone (bes. bis 1929)
= 3. Zone (bes. bis 1930)
Nach Abschluss d. Vertrags von Versailles bes. Gebiete
= Sanktionen (1920–25) und franz. Besetzung des Ruhrgebietes (1923–1925)
= Ostgrenze der entmilitarisierten Zone

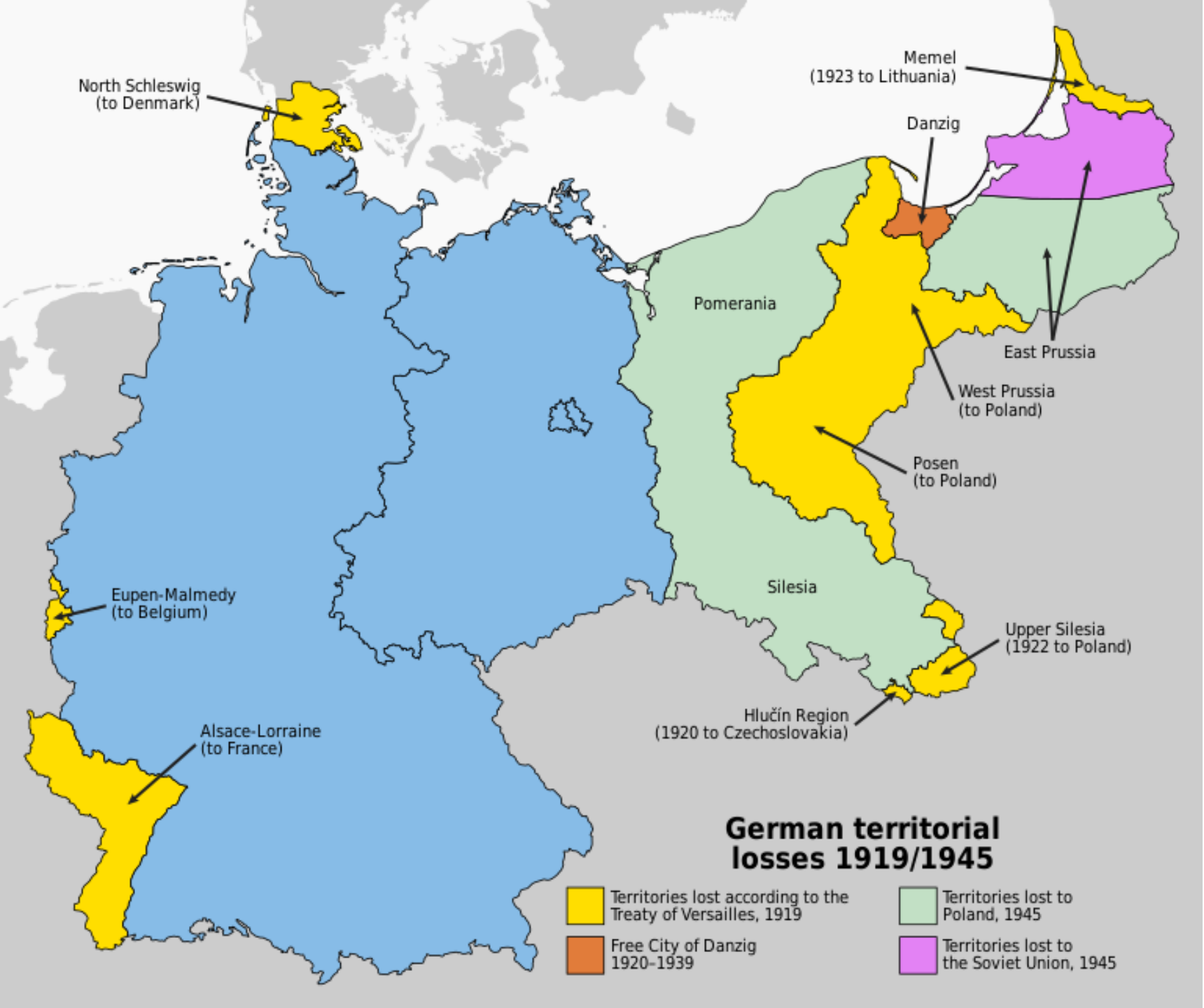
The Nazi regime suppressing labor unions and strikes, leading to prosperity which gave the Nazi Party popularity, with only minor, isolated and subsequently unsuccessful cases of resistance among the German population over their rule. The Gestapo (secret police) destroyed the political opposition and persecuted the Jews, trying to force them into exile. The Party took control of the courts, local government, and all civic organizations except the Christian churches. All expressions of public opinion were controlled the propaganda ministry, which used film, mass rallies, and Hitler's hypnotic speaking. The Nazi state idolized Hitler as its Führer (leader), putting all powers in his hands. Nazi propaganda centered on Hitler and created the "Hitler Myth"—that Hitler was all-wise and that any mistakes or failures by others would be corrected when brought to his attention. In fact Hitler had a narrow range of interests and decision making was diffused among overlapping, feuding power centers; on some issues he was passive, simply assenting to pressures from whoever had his ear. All top officials reported to Hitler and followed his basic policies, but they had considerable autonomy on a daily basis

European territory occupied by Nazi Germany and its allies at its greatest extent in 1942, Germany (Reich) is shown in the darkest blue.



German-occupied Europe
German Empire in 1934
Countries and territories occupied by the German Empire from 1935 to 1945





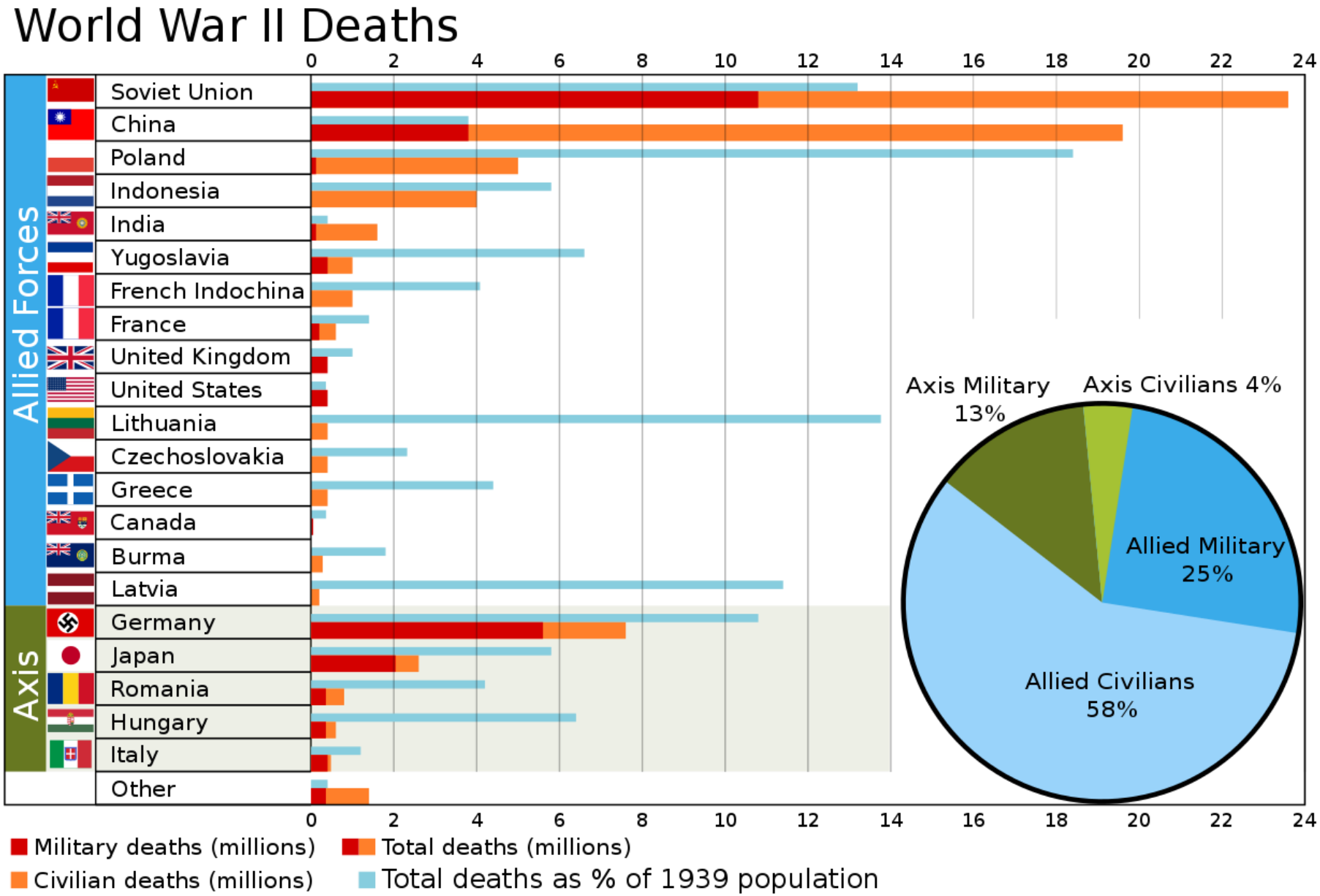
German territorial losses 1919 and 1945

Casualties and losses World War II

Military dead:
Over 16,000,000
Civilian dead:
Over 45,000,000
Total dead:
Over 61,000,000
(1937–1945)

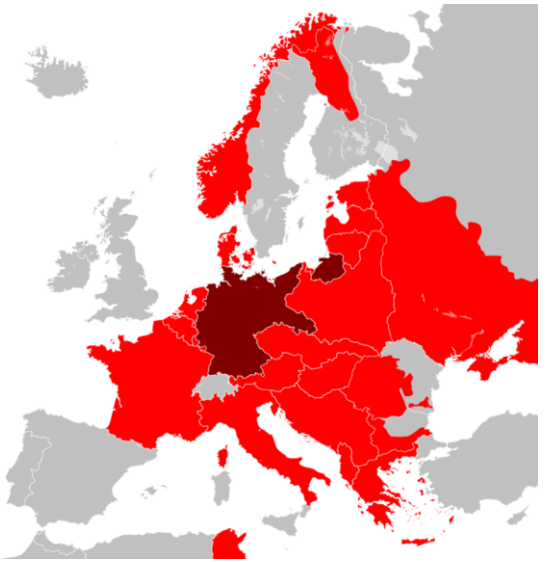
Germany

Military dead:
Over 8,000,000
Civilian dead:
Over 4,000,000
Total dead:
Over 12,000,000
(1937–1945)



World War II casualties

Military deaths	**21,000,000 to 25,500,000**
Civilian deaths	**19,000,000 to 28,000,000**



German-occupied Europe
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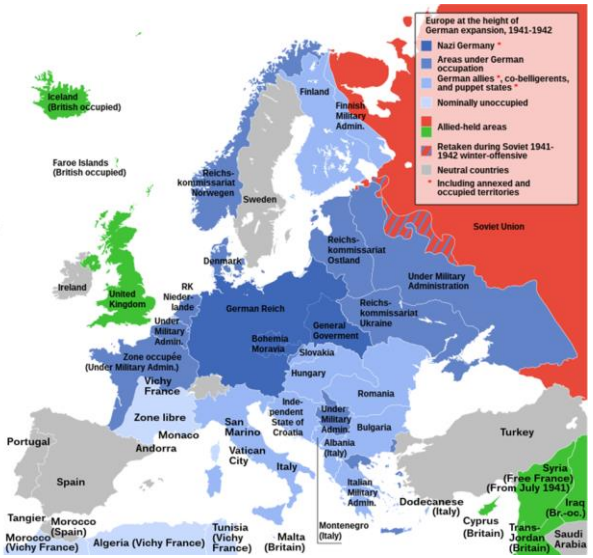


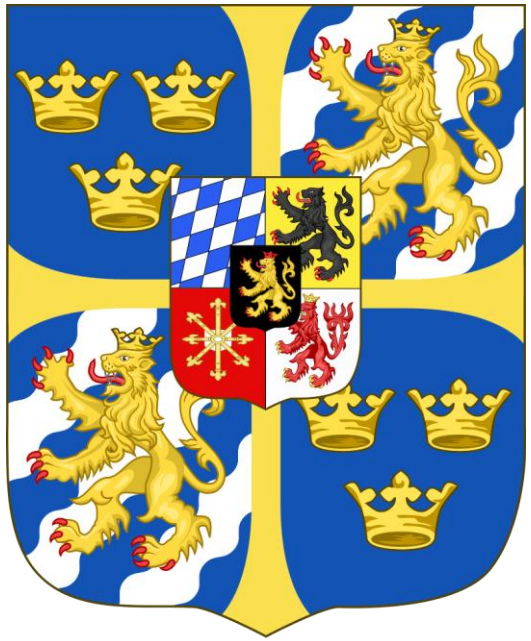
Sweden's Grand Epoch: The Age of Great Powers

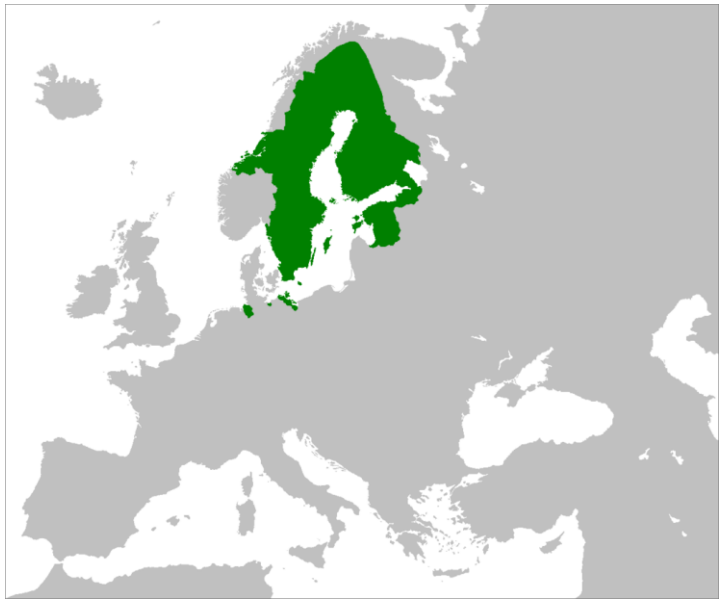
The Age of Great Powers: Sweden's Dominion in 1658

In the 17th century, Sweden, after a series of victorious wars, expanded its territories significantly. The country's military prowess under the leadership of Gustav II Adolf led to the acquisition of new lands, including parts of the Baltic region, northern Germany, and regions that are now part of Sweden. This era, known as 'The Age of Great Powers', saw Sweden as a major European player, influencing the political and religious landscape of the continent.

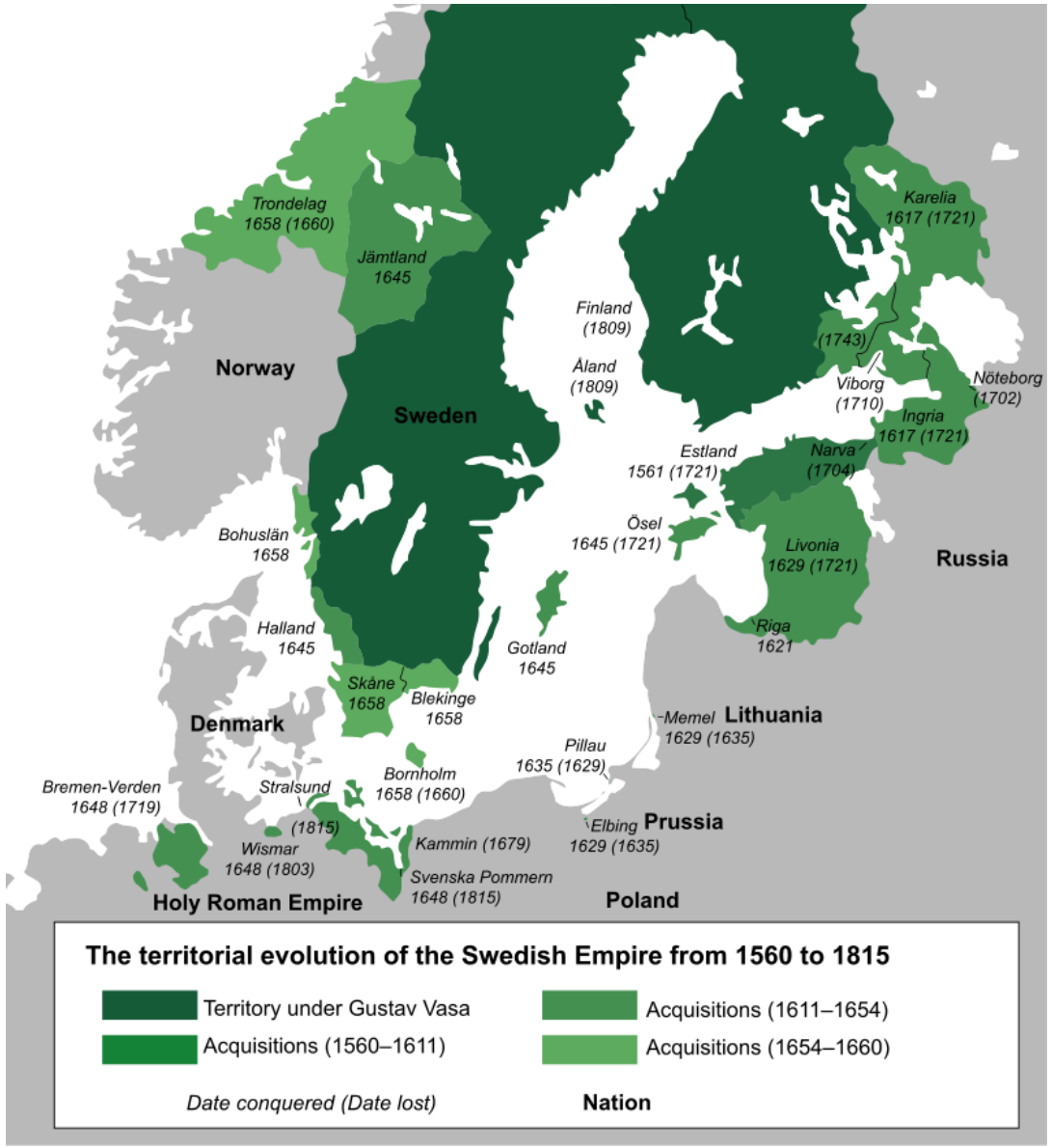
The Swedish Empire

The Swedish Empire (Swedish: stormaktstiden, "the Era of Great Power") was the period in Swedish history spanning much of the 17th and early 18th centuries during which Sweden became a European great power that exercised territorial control over much of the Baltic region. The beginning of the period is usually taken as the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, who ascended the throne in 1611, and its end as the loss of territories in 1721 following the Great Northern War.

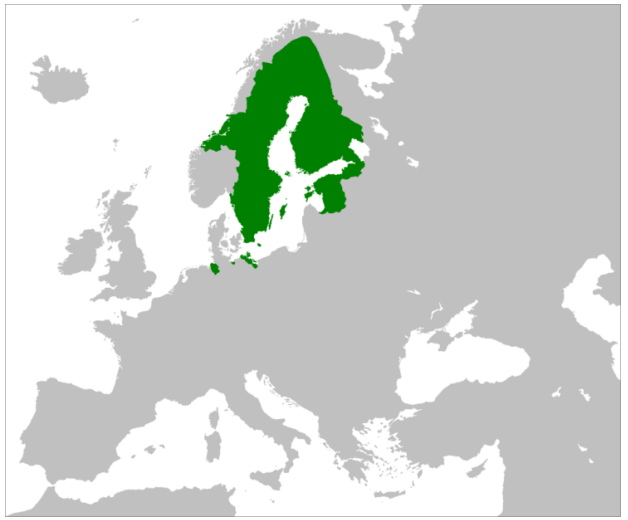




The Height of Swedish Power



The year 1658 marked the zenith of Sweden's power, with the country's influence reaching its peak. Sweden's military victories and strategic alliances, such as the Treaty of Westphalia, showcased its role in shaping the European order. The Swedish Empire, at this time, was a formidable presence, with its reach extending beyond the Scandinavian region.



The Legacy of the Swedish Empire

Although the Swedish Empire would eventually face decline, the period of 'The Age of Great Powers' left a lasting legacy. Sweden's influence during this time is evident in its cultural, political, and territorial impact on Europe. The country's ability to mediate conflicts and maintain a balance of power was a testament to its status as a significant European nation.

The Decline of Swedish Supremacy

The Swedish Empire's decline began after the death of Charles XII in 1718, leading to a series of conflicts and reductions in power. Despite these challenges, Sweden's legacy as a great power during the 17th century remains a significant chapter in its history, reflecting a time when the country's influence was felt across the European continent.

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus in 1632

After the death of Gustavus Adolphus in 1632, the empire was controlled for lengthy periods by part of the high nobility, such as the Oxenstierna family, acting as regents for minor monarchs. The interests of the high nobility contrasted with the uniformity policy (i.e., upholding the traditional equality in status of the Swedish estates favoured by the kings and peasantry). In territories acquired during the periods of de facto noble rule, serfdom was not abolished, and there was also a trend to set up respective estates in Sweden proper. The Great Reduction of 1680 put an end to these efforts of the nobility and required them to return estates once gained from the crown to the king. Serfdom, however, remained in force in the dominions acquired in the Holy Roman Empire and in Swedish Estonia, where a consequent application of the uniformity policy was hindered by the treaties by which they were gained.

After its victories in the Thirty Years' War

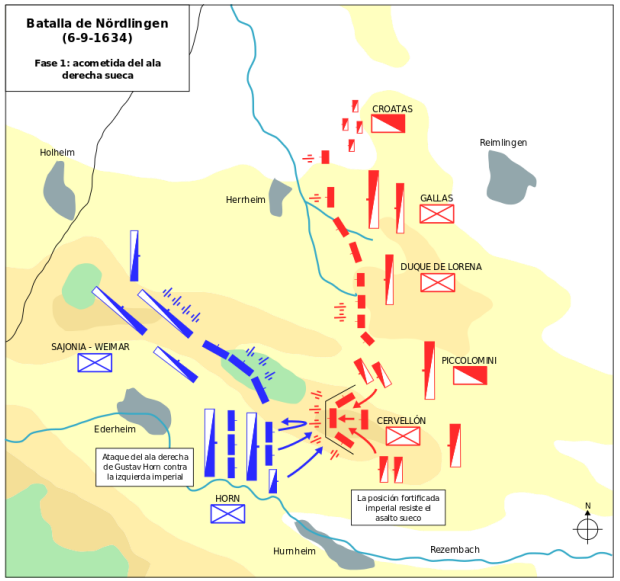
After its victories in the Thirty Years' War, Sweden reached the height of its power during the Second Northern War, when its primary adversary, Denmark–Norway, was neutralized by the Treaty of Roskilde in 1658. However, in the further course of this war, as well as in the subsequent Scanian War, Sweden was able to maintain its empire only with the support of its closest ally, France. Although the reign of Charles XII would see initial Swedish victories in the Peace of Travendal (1700) and the Treaty of Altranstädt (1706), he would go on to lead a campaign in Russia that would end in a staggering defeat for the Swedes. The Russian victory at the Battle of Poltava put an end to Sweden's eastbound expansion, and by the time of Charles XII's death in 1718 the Empire had been severely diminished both territorially and militarily. The last traces of occupied continental territory vanished during the Napoleonic Wars, and Finland went to Russia in 1809, marking the end of Sweden’s period as a great power.

Emergence as a great power

Sweden emerged as a great European power under Axel Oxenstierna and King Gustavus Adolphus. As a result of acquiring territories seized from Russia and the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth, as well as its involvement in the Thirty Years' War, Sweden found itself transformed into the leader of Protestantism.

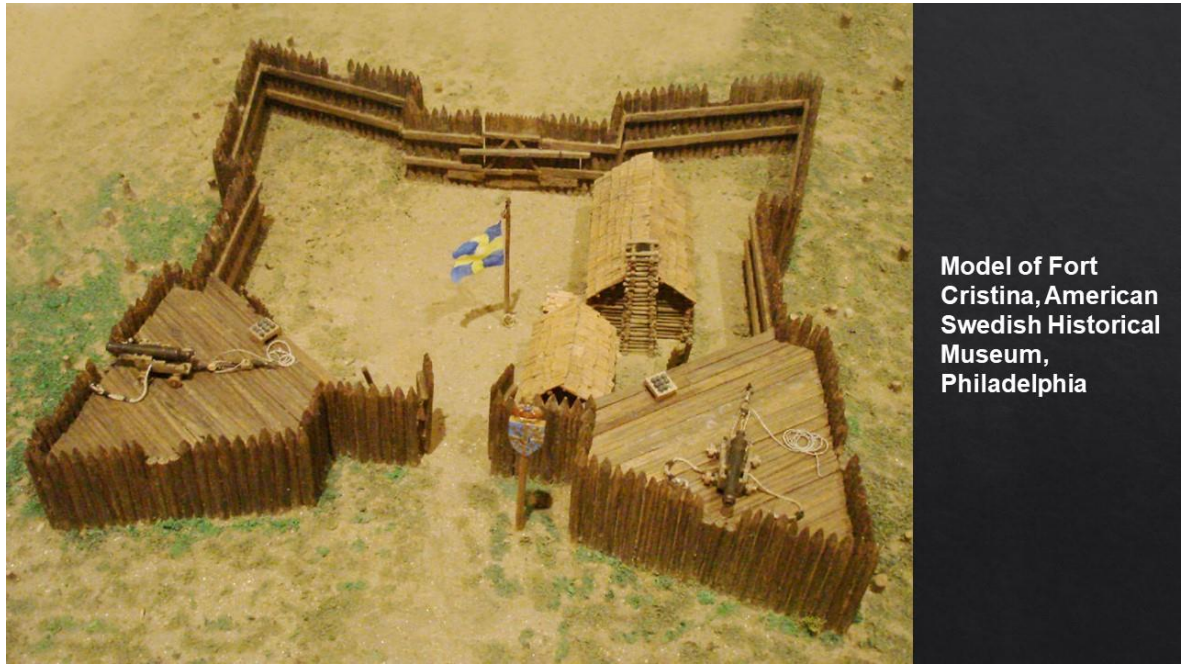
During The Thirty Years War

During the Thirty Years' War, Sweden managed to conquer approximately half of the member states of the Holy Roman Empire. The fortunes of war would shift back and forth several times. After its defeat in the Battle of Nördlingen (1634), confidence in Sweden among the Swedish-controlled German states was damaged, and several of the provinces refused further Swedish military support, leaving Sweden with only a couple of northern German provinces.



New Sweden

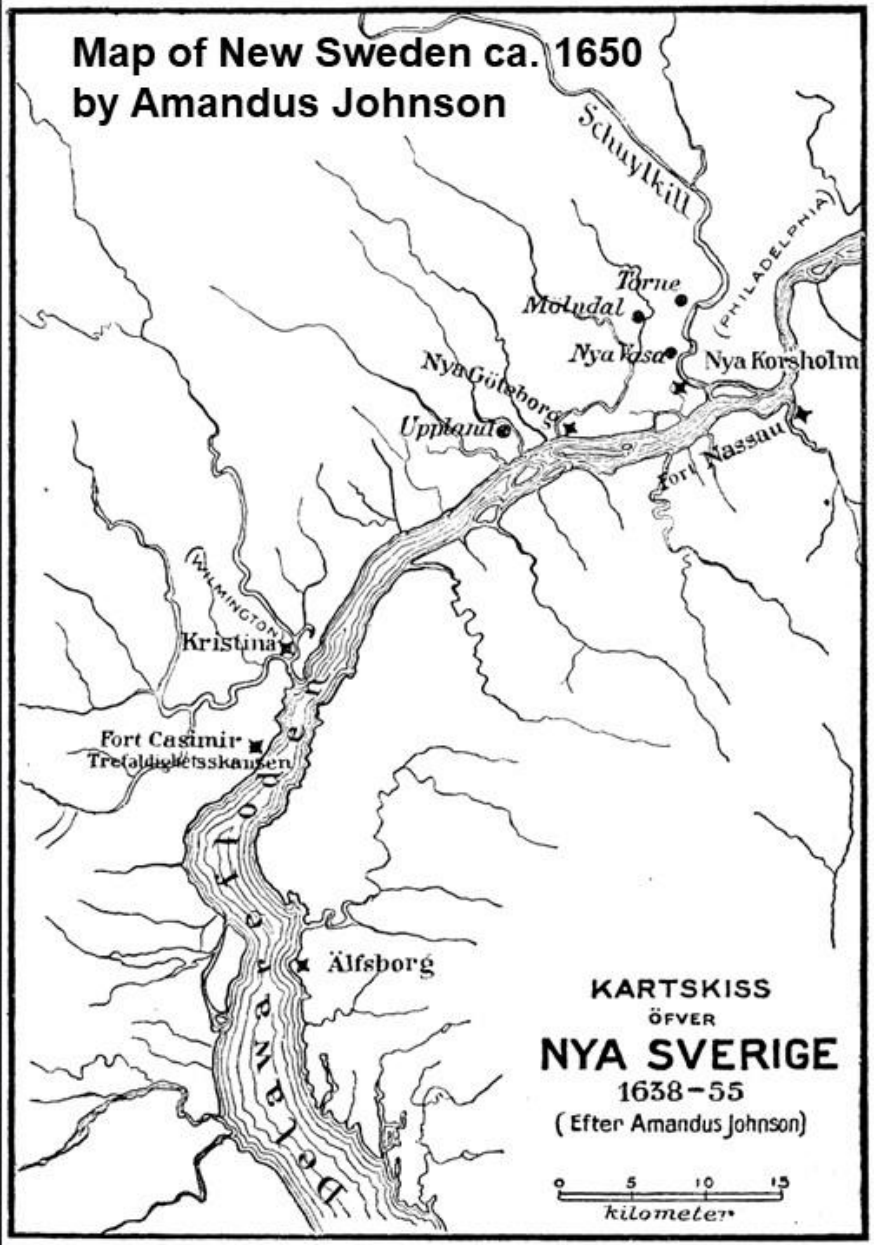
Sweden founded overseas colonies, principally in the New World. New Sweden was founded in the valley of the Delaware River in 1638, and Sweden later laid claim to a number of Caribbean islands. A string of Swedish forts and trading posts was constructed along the coast of West Africa as well, but these were not designed for Swedish settlers.



Model of Fort Cristina, American Swedish Historical Museum, Philadelphia

New Sweden was a Swedish colony along the lower reaches of the **Delaware River in America from 1638 to 1655**, established during the Thirty Years' War when Sweden was a great military power. New Sweden was part of Swedish colonization efforts in the Americas. Settlements were established on both sides of the Delaware Valley in the region of Delaware, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, often in places where Swedish traders had been visiting since about 1610 Fort Christina in Wilmington, Delaware was the first settlement, named after the reigning Swedish monarch. The settlers were Swedes, Finns, and a number of Dutch. New Sweden was conquered by the Dutch Republic in 1655 during the Second Northern War and incorporated into the Dutch colony of New Netherland.

By the middle of the 17th century, the Realm of Sweden had reached its greatest territorial extent and was one of the great powers of Europe. Sweden then included Finland and Estonia, along with parts of modern Russia, Poland, Germany, and Latvia under King Gustavus Adolphus and later Christina, Queen of Sweden. The Swedes sought to expand their influence by creating an agricultural (tobacco) and fur-trading colony to circumvent French and English merchants.



Kalmar Nyckel (Key of Kalmar) was a Swedish ship built by the Dutch famed for carrying Swedish settlers to North America in 1638, to establish the colony of New Sweden. The name Kalmar Nyckel comes from the Swedish city of Kalmar and nyckel meaning key in Swedish. The name was also a tribute to Kalmar Castle which was a symbol of power during the time of the Swedish Empire when Sweden was a military great power. A replica of the ship was launched at Wilmington, Delaware, in 1997.

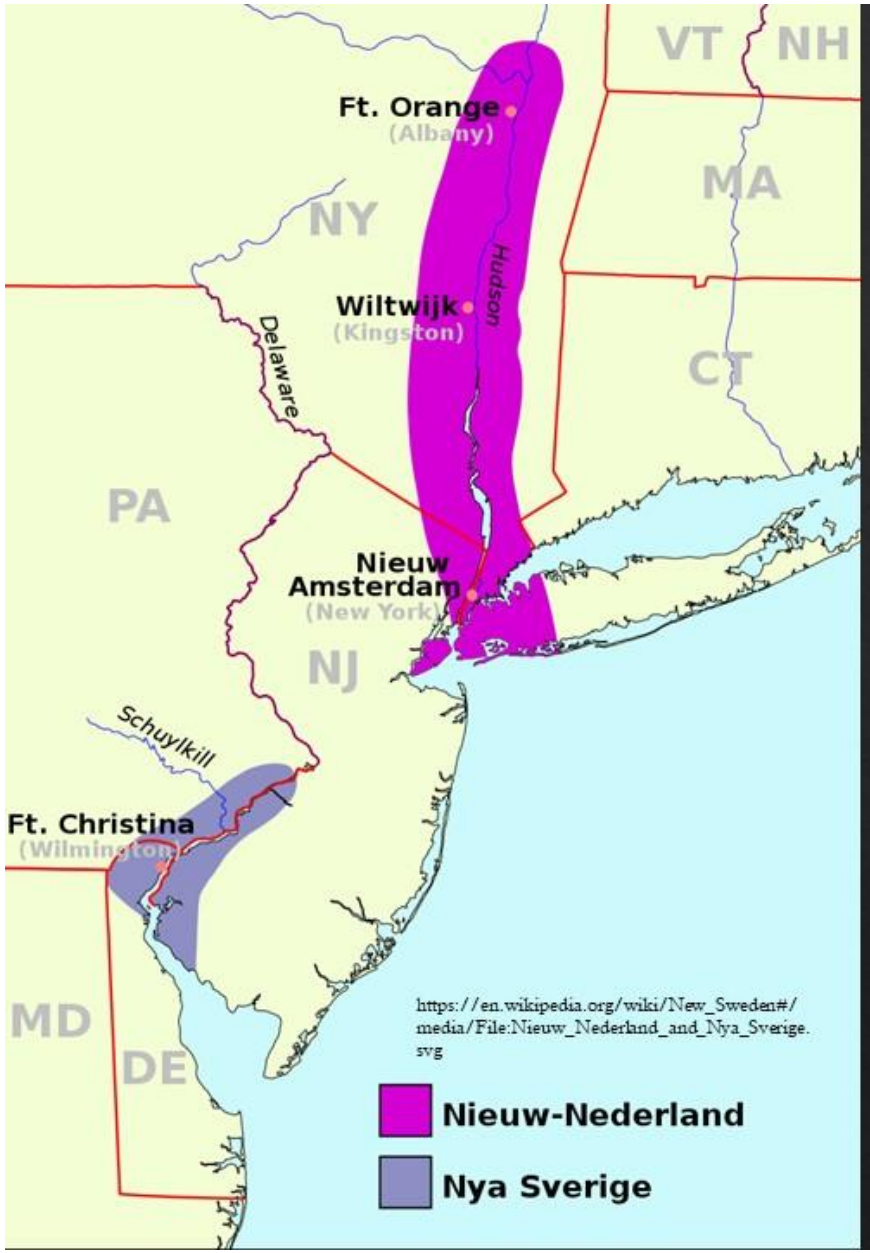
1638 - After a 4-month voyage from Gothenburg, Kalmar Nyckel arrives in the Delaware in March. **Captain Peter Minuit** purchases land on west bank from the Schuylkill River to Bombay Hook, builds Fort Christina at present Wilmington and leaves 24 men, under the command of Lt. Måns Kling, to man the fort and trade with Indians. Kalmar Nyckel returns safely to Sweden, but Minuit dies on return trip in a hurricane in the Caribbean.

1639 - Fogel Grip, which accompanied Kalmal Nyckel, brings a 25th man from St. Kitts, a slave from Angola known as Anthony Swartz.

1640 - Kalmar Nyckel, on its second voyage, brings the first families to New Sweden, including those of Sven Gunnarsson and Lars Svensson. Other new settlers include Peter Rambo, Anders Bonde, Måns Andersson, Johan Schaggen, Anders Dalbo and Dr. Timen Stiddem. Lt. Peter Hollander Ridder, who succeeds Kling as new commanding officer, purchases more land from Indians between Schuylkill and the Falls of the Delaware.

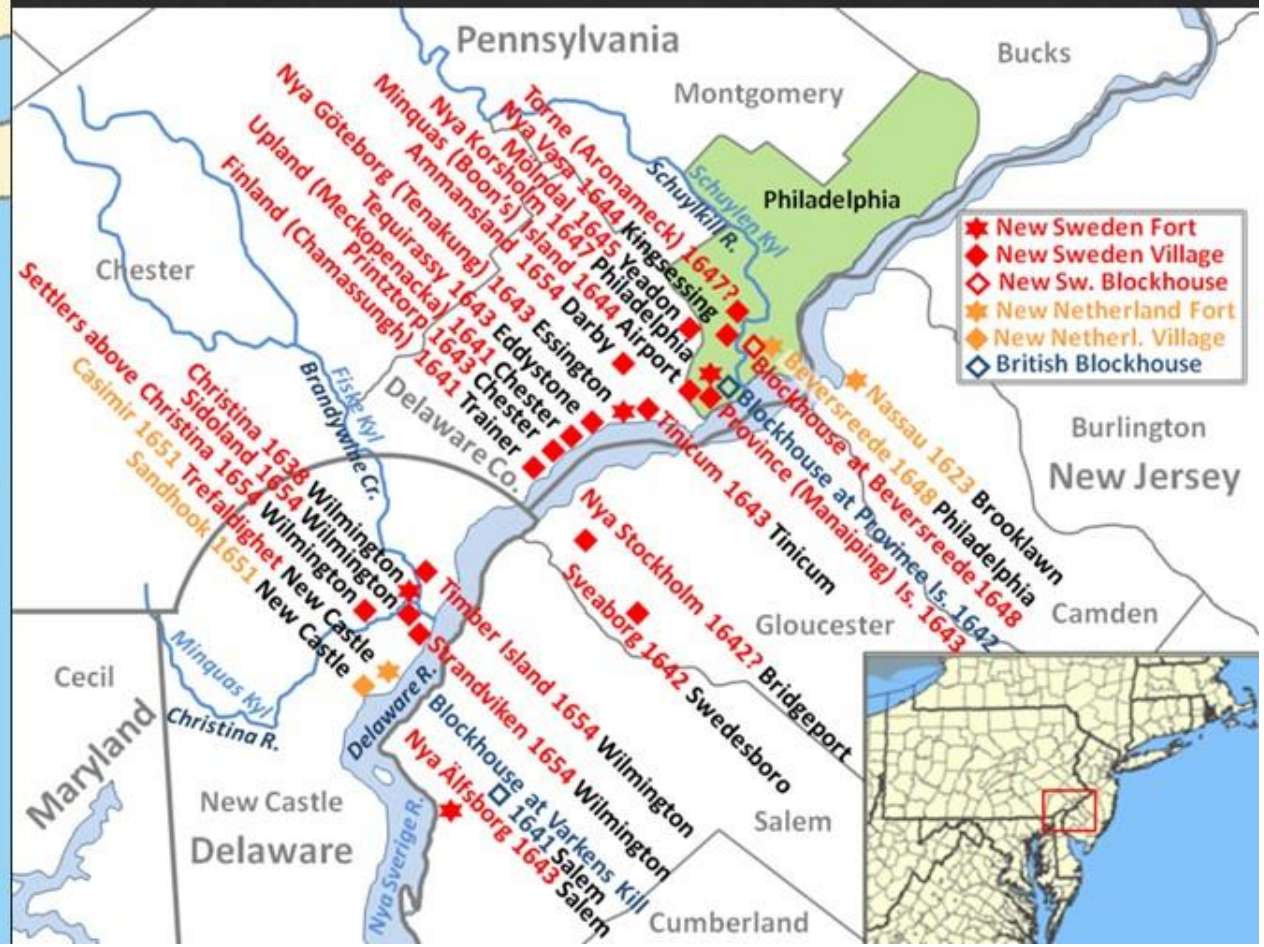
In Chesapeake Bay, 2008, flying from foretop to stern the Finnish, Swedish naval, Dutch and American flags.

In 1986, a group of citizens of Wilmington, Delaware, established the Kalmar Nyckel Foundation, whose primary source of funding is from the taxpayers of the State of Delaware, plus donations from corporations and individuals.



The relative locations of New Netherland (magenta) and New Sweden (blue) in America; state boundaries and postal abbreviations are shown

Map of Lenape languages and tribes. Map terms translated from German original into English.



Sweden opened the Second Northern War in the Baltic by attacking the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth, and the Dutch sent an armed squadron of ships under Director-General Peter Stuyvesant to seize New Sweden. In the summer of 1655, the Dutch marched an army to the Delaware River, easily capturing Fort Trinity and Fort Christina. **The Swedish settlement was formally incorporated into Dutch New Netherland on September 15, 1655**, although the Swedish and Finnish settlers were allowed local autonomy. They retained their own militia, religion, court, and lands. This lasted until the English conquest of New Netherland, launched on June 24, 1664.

Peace of Westphalia

The Peace of Westphalia is the collective name for two peace treaties signed in October 1648 in the Westphalian cities of Osnabrück and Münster. They ended the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) and brought peace to the Holy Roman Empire, closing a calamitous period of European history that killed approximately eight million people. Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand III, the kingdoms of France and Sweden, and their respective allies among the princes of the Holy Roman Empire, participated in the treaties.

Sweden preferred to negotiate with the Holy Roman Empire in Osnabrück, which was controlled by Protestant forces. Osnabrück was a bi-denominational Lutheran and Catholic city, with two Lutheran churches and two Catholic churches. The city council was exclusively Lutheran, and the burghers mostly so, but the city also housed the Catholic Chapter of the Prince-Bishopric of Osnabrück and had many other Catholic inhabitants. Osnabrück had been subjugated by troops of the Catholic League from 1628 to 1633 and was then taken by Lutheran Sweden.

Domestic consolidation

For the moment, Sweden held a tenuous position of leadership. Careful statesmanship might mean permanent dominion on the Baltic shore, but left little room for mistakes. The extravagance of Gustavus Adolphus's two immediate successors, Christina and Charles X Gustav, caused great difficulties for the new empire. Christina's financial extravagance brought the state to the verge of bankruptcy, and the financial difficulties caused public unrest before her abdication. The Swedish people feared that the external, artificial greatness of their country might be purchased with the loss of their civil and political liberties. The Swedish people looked to a new king to address the problem of too much power vested in the nobility.

Charles X Gustav

Charles X Gustav had done his best to recover from the financial extravagance of Christina. However, his own desire for military glory may have caused problems for his country. In three days, he persuaded the Swedish estates of the potential of his attack on the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth. However, when he left Stockholm for Warsaw on 10 July 1654, he gained more personal glory than advantage for his country. The Polish-Swedish War expanded into a general European war. He achieved passage over the Belts and emerged triumphant, only to die of sheer exhaustion. Immediately after his death, a regency was appointed to govern Sweden during the minority of his only son and successor, Charles XI of Sweden, who was four years old. The regency council moved quickly to end the war with Sweden's numerous enemies, which now included the Tsardom of Russia, the Polish–Lithuanian Commonwealth, the Electorate of Brandenburg and Denmark-Norway

Year 1660

In 1660, after five years of warfare, Sweden had obtained peace and the opportunity to organize and develop the new vast realm. The fifteen-year regency that followed Charles X Gustav was unable to manoeuvre through the situation it faced. The administration was internally divided and hindered by the lack of unity and talent among its statesmen. The two major rivals were the military-aristocratic party headed by Magnus de la Gardie and the party of peace and economy led by Johan Gyllenstierna.

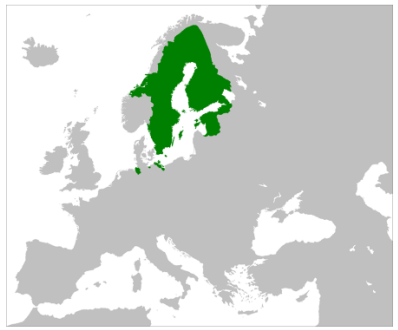
In 1674, Louis XIV called upon Sweden to invade the Electorate of Brandenburg. In May 1675, a Swedish army advanced into the Mark but was defeated on 18 June at Fehrbellin and retreated to Swedish Demmin. The Fehrbellin affair was a mere skirmish, with actual casualties numbering fewer than 600 men, but it made Sweden appear vulnerable and enabled neighbouring countries to attack in the Scanian War.

The war was prompted by Swedish involvement in the Franco-Dutch War. Sweden had allied with France against several European countries. The United Provinces, under attack by France, sought support from Denmark–Norway. After some hesitation, King Christian V started the invasion of Skåneland (Scania, Halland, Blekinge, and sometimes also Bornholm)

Map showing the development of the Swedish Empire in Early Modern Europe (1560-1815)

The Swedish Empire

The Swedish Empire (Swedish: stormaktstiden, "the Era of Great Power") was the period in Swedish history spanning much of the 17th and early 18th centuries during which Sweden became a European great power that exercised territorial control over much of the Baltic region. The beginning of the period is usually taken as the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, who ascended the throne in 1611, and its end as the loss of territories in 1721 following the Great Northern War.



The remainder of the reign of Charles XI is remarkable for a revolution, in which the government of Sweden was transformed to a semi-absolute monarchy. The king emerged from the war convinced that if Sweden were to retain its position as a great power, it needed to reform its whole economic system radically and circumscribe the power of the aristocracy. Charles XI felt that he could do it now that he had allies in the lower orders to support him. Charles XI re-established on a broader basis the reorganization of the "indelningsverk" — a system of military tenure in which national forces were bound to the soil. This tied to the "rust hail tenure", under which the tenants, instead of paying rent, were obliged to equip and maintain a cavalry soldier and horse; while the knekthållare supplied duly equipped foot soldiers.

Charles XII and the Great Northern War

After Charles XI's death, the throne was inherited by his underage son, Charles XII. After a brief regency, he was declared to be of age to rule. Three years later, in 1700, Denmark–Norway, Poland and Russia, the countries that had lost the most territory to Sweden, jointly declared war. Denmark–Norway was soon forced to peace after a joint intervention of Swedish, English and Dutch armies, whereafter the King and much of the Swedish army was shipped to the Baltic provinces, where Russian and Polish armies were laying siege to several towns. The Russian army was soundly defeated in the Battle of Narva, after which Charles took the army into Poland with the intent of dethroning the Polish king Augustus II. This took several years, but in 1706, with the Treaty of Altranstädt, he reached his goal.

Gallery of the Swedish monarchs during the imperial era

Thus, in the latter half of the 17th century, the major difference between the Swedish army and those common on the continent was the relative lack of firepower and the use of pikes and sabres. Sweden and Russia were the only countries at the time using pikes. In contemporary Europe, infantry were equipped with a musket, while in the Swedish army, every third man had a pike. The pikemen were normally deployed four men deep with musketeers of equal depth on the sides. The pike was used to repulse cavalry and to break the enemy lines as they charged.

The Height of Swedish Power

The year 1658 marked the zenith of Sweden's power, with the country's influence reaching its peak. Sweden's military victories and strategic alliances, such as the Treaty of Westphalia, showcased its role in shaping the European order. The Swedish Empire, at this time, was a formidable presence, with its reach extending beyond the Scandinavian region.

Gallery of the Swedish monarchs during the imperial era